Author:
Kim, Young

Title:
Teachers' Written Corrective Feedback Approaches in the Korean Secondary EFL Context

Teachers' Beliefs, Perceptions and Practices

Teachers' Written Corrective Feedback Approaches in the Korean Secondary EFL Context: Teachers' Beliefs, Perceptions and Practices

Young Kim

A dissertation submitted to the University of Bristol in accordance with the requirements for award of the degree of Doctor of Education in the Faculty of Social Science and Law

January 6, 2017

Word Count: 50765

Abstract

The central focus of this study is to explore Korean EFL secondary school teachers' stated beliefs concerning teachers' written corrective feedback in writing classes. The study aims to investigate the nature and extent of the teachers' stated beliefs, perceptions and current practices concerning their written corrective feedback, as well as Korean EFL secondary students' perceptions concerning their teachers' written corrective feedback. This is based on the assumption that Korean EFL secondary school students can benefit from their teachers' corrective feedback on their written English. The study places written English education in South Korea in its sociocultural, socio-political and socio-economic context using Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory (SCT).

Four main research questions are defined to examine the complexities embedded in Korean EFL secondary school teachers' stated beliefs concerning written corrective feedback and their adoption of such approaches in their writing classrooms. The first question explores the stated beliefs of Korean EFL secondary school teachers with regard to written corrective feedback, the second examines Korean EFL secondary school teachers' perceptions concerning their written corrective feedback, the third examines Korean EFL secondary students' perceptions concerning their teachers' written corrective feedback, and the fourth explores, on the basis of two teacher participants, the nature of the teachers' corrective feedback practices implemented in their writing classes.

The study uses a mixed methods approach (Creswell, 2003; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Morse, 2003; Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998, 2003) employing semi-structured student questionnaires, semi-structured teacher interviews and document analysis. The data sets were compared to identify the phenomena embedded in the formulation of both teachers' and students' perceptions and their possible influence on actual feedback practice in the classroom. The participants were 70 Korean secondary school students in an EFL language school in South Korea and 8 Korean and English bilingual teachers.

The findings indicated that Korean EFL secondary school teachers hold varying beliefs regarding feedback approaches and that their feedback approaches are constructed based on the complexities of such beliefs as well as specific contextual factors. Furthermore, a high percentage of students found the teachers' written feedback beneficial in improving their writing. Their teachers also reported that appropriate corrective feedback was essential for secondary school students' EFL writing development. In terms of the students' and teachers' perceptions of corrective feedback approaches, most students indicated that teachers focused on grammar and sentence structure as areas for improvement, while the findings from the teacher interviews showed mixed results, indicating that they use their own systems and apply different criteria for providing feedback: i) for beginners, they focus on simple grammatical or vocabulary errors; ii) for advanced students, they focus on the logical flow of their ideas, as well as the sentence structure. Also, the majority of the students responded that they preferred indirect feedback (e.g. coding or underlining), followed by comprehensive direct feedback, i.e. teachers' provision of the correct form in their written work (Ellis, 2009). However, in the interviews, only one teacher out of eight expressed a preference for using indirect feedback, while the rest employed a mixture of the two types of feedback approach. Moreover, the findings obtained from analysis of samples of two teachers' (T2 and T8) written feedback on nearly 120 student essay papers showed that their approaches were widely individualized and context-dependent and there were tentative indications of discrepancies between teachers' beliefs and their actual feedback practices (Borg, 1998, 1999, 2011; Breen et al., 2001; Pajares, 1992).

Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my loving family, particularly to my father who has inspired me to stay strong and consistent during difficult times. His words '*stick to the beliefs of the beginning*' (초심을 잃지 마라) have been the most powerful inspiration throughout this long journey.

Acknowledgements

Writing the ‘acknowledgements’ for my study is both moving and very emotional. My doctoral journey took far longer than that of other students in the same programme, in fact a total of nearly nine years. The reason it took so long was because I had to work and study at the same time, which involved commuting back and forth between the UK and my home in South Korea. Reflecting on the past nine years, I would like to extend my sincere gratitude to all the people who have helped me.

I would like to acknowledge my heartfelt thanks to my supervisor, Dr Helen Woodfield, for her constant support and guidance throughout my studies. Her advice and insightful feedback have enabled me to complete this dissertation. I am also very grateful to Dr Guoxing Yu and Dr Sheila Trahar from the University of Bristol and Dr Richard Kiely from the University of Southampton, who provided valuable references for my readmission to the programme in 2013. Without their valuable support, it would not have been possible for me to have arrived at this point.

My sincere gratitude also goes to all the participants who agreed to take part in my research: first, to the friendly staff of S.K. Education, Seoul, South Korea, in particular for their help in arranging the teacher interviews and student survey; to the teachers who gladly offered their time for the interviews and submitted their feedback samples for my study; to the Korean secondary school students and their parents, who allowed me to conduct the survey. Also, I would like to express my great appreciation to my loving friends abroad and my fellow students in the doctoral research rooms, who provided constructive advice not only on my research development but also on personal matters. I am particularly grateful for the loving support and assistance given by G. Harrison and R. A. Harrison during the hard times writing my dissertation.

Finally, I am especially grateful for my supportive family, my parents, brother and sister, and my wonderful daughter, Sun-Ho Lee, for their patience and encouragement. Their support has been a great strength to me. Everything that they have done for me over the years has encouraged me to endure and miraculously complete this challenging journey.

Declaration

I declare that the work in this dissertation was carried out in accordance with the requirements of the University's Regulations and Code of Practice for Research Degree Programmes and that it has not been submitted for any other academic award. Except where indicated by specific reference in the text, the work is the candidate's own work. Work done in collaboration with, or with the assistance of, others, is indicated as such. Any views expressed in the dissertation are those of the author.

SIGNED:..... DATE: .....

Table of contents

List of tables

List of figures

List of abbreviations and acronyms

CLT	Communicative language teaching
EFL	English as a foreign language
ESL	English as a second language
IELTS	International English Language Testing System
KICE	Korea Institute for Curriculum and Instruction
L1	First language
L2	Second language
MEST	Ministry of Education, Science and Technology
MEHRD	Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development
NEAT	National English Ability Test
RQ	Research question
SCT	Sociocultural theory
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language
TOEIC	Test of English for International Communication
TEPS	Test of English Proficiency developed by Seoul National University
ZPD	Zone of proximal development

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Overview

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an introduction to the study. This chapter consists of five sections. To begin with, the purpose statement of the research is presented in 1.2. This is followed by an overview of the background to the research in 1.3. Then, there is a brief rationale, grounded in the research, in 1.4, followed by aims of the study and the research questions in 1.5. This chapter ends with an outline of the dissertation in 1.6.

1.2 Statement of purpose

The central focus of the study is to explore Korean EFL teachers' beliefs concerning teachers' written corrective feedback in classrooms. This study investigates Korean EFL secondary school teachers' stated beliefs, perceptions and current practices concerning their written corrective feedback, as well as students' perceptions concerning their teachers' written corrective feedback in a private language school context. This research emerges fundamentally from a number of pedagogical concerns. The investigation stresses a specific need for academic research in English as a foreign language (EFL) writing for Korean secondary school students. Also, with a view to refining educational quality, teachers' corrective feedback approaches in response to secondary school EFL students' errors in their written work are examined, particularly in the private language school (*hagwon* in Korean) settings in Seoul, South Korea, emphasizing sociocultural, socio-political and socioeconomic elements in shaping and developing demand-driven instructional methods.

This study explores the complexities embedded in Korean EFL secondary school teachers' stated beliefs of written corrective feedback and their adoption of various feedback approaches in EFL writing classrooms and attempts to identify possible reasons for teachers' choosing certain types of feedback over other options. The study presents a detailed report of the extent to which these beliefs regarding corrective feedback are influenced by teachers' awareness of the various realities in the classroom. It suggests meaningful guidelines for EFL teachers, students and other practitioners in the EFL writing context, particularly in South Korea.

1.3 Research background

Focusing on teachers' concerns regarding corrective feedback and students' perceptions of teachers' error feedback, this study argues a strong demand for culture-specific and learner-specific feedback approaches (Conrad & Goldstein, 1999; Hyland & Hyland, 2006; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010; Tardy, 2006) and seeks insights into how Korean EFL writing teachers might use feedback approaches, allowing them to understand the reasons for selecting certain feedback approaches.

There are two main assumptions rooted in the research. First, studies on teachers' corrective feedback have argued that English as a second language (ESL) students believe that receiving teachers' corrective feedback on a regular basis can lead them to produce better writing (Ferris, 1995; Ferris et al., 1997; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994; Leki, 1991, 2006). Such studies have addressed the importance of corrective feedback provision, emphasizing that L2 students need teachers' corrective feedback on their written errors and are dependent on teachers' assistance in L2 writing (Cumming 1995; Ferris 1995; Ferris & Roberts 2001; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz 1994; Lee 2004; Leki 1991, 2006). However, second, in terms of feedback approaches in ESL writing, the literature (e.g. Ferris, 1997; Hyland F., 1998; Hyland & Hyland, 2006) claims that it is still a challenging task for teachers to deliver effective corrective feedback that meets individual students' needs. Studies have highlighted the importance of individual differences in relation to students' perceptions towards teachers' feedback approaches, raising awareness about the mutual understanding between students and teachers (Ferris, 2002; Goldstein, 2004; Goldstein & Conrad, 1990; Hyland & Hyland, 2006; Lee, 2004; Tardy, 2006).

As stated above, over the past few decades, a number of studies have been conducted related to ESL students' responses to their teachers' corrective feedback approaches. Reflecting on the literature, it has predominantly put weight (possibly excessively) on teachers' responsibility for providing feedback or on the effect of certain methods used in teachers' error correction in students' written work (e.g. Chandler, 2003; Cohen & Cavalcanti, 1990; Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Ferris, 1996, 2002; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994; Kepner, 1991; Lee, 1997; Leki, 1991, 2006). Despite the importance of mutual understanding in the dynamic process of corrective feedback, so that it is exchanged and shaped between teachers and students interactively, investigations in

past research have focused mainly on the use of different feedback approaches in relation to students' diverse preferences in tertiary ESL contexts (e.g. Bitchener & Knock, 2010; Chandler, 2003; Ferris, 1997, 2002, 2003; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Saito, 1994).

Moreover, most existing research has been confined to a narrow age range, mainly to the tertiary level in ESL settings (Chandler, 2003; Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Ferris, 1999, 2002; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994; Hyland & Anan, 2006; Lee, 1997, 2005, 2008; Montgomery & Baker, 2007). Until recently, little attention has been paid to secondary level EFL writing students, especially those attending middle school (aged 13–15). Furthermore, almost no studies have been conducted on how teachers and students perceive teachers' written corrective feedback in the context of Korean secondary EFL private language schools.

Also, despite a range of findings in the above studies on teachers' corrective feedback approaches in ESL tertiary contexts, English writing is as yet not a priority in EFL classrooms in Korean secondary schools (e.g. Bray, 1999, 2006, 2009, 2010; Kim, M.K., 2003; Kim, T.Y, 2006; Park, J.K., 2009). This is particularly problematic in the EFL context, in which exposure to English writing education is limited. Most essay level English writing classes in South Korea are taught in private language schools with a view to enabling students to perform successfully in high-stakes English proficiency tests for academic or career purposes. Also, teachers' instruction in such schools primarily focuses on essay template memorization using the correct English grammar and vocabulary (Bray, 1999, 2006; Kim, T.Y, 2008; Park, J.K., 2009).

Reflecting on these findings, there are several issues to be addressed. First, some researchers have focused predominantly on indicating whether corrective feedback is helpful or not, overlooking possible internal problems in the specific contexts of the diverse settings in which EFL writing takes place. This phenomenon has resulted in many controversies regarding the usefulness of teachers' written corrective feedback in EFL and ESL classrooms (e.g. Ferris, 1999, 2002, 2004; Truscott, 1996, 1999, 2004). Second, over time, although such studies on different approaches have suggested how teachers can/should provide corrective feedback, the claims have been mixed and overly contextualized based on the diverse research settings. Despite the existence of empirical research documenting the particular nature of teachers' feedback approaches

(Chandler, 2003; Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Ferris, 1995, 1997; Ferris & Helt, 2000; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Robb et al., 1986; Saito, 1994; Schroeder, 1973; Zamel, 1985), it is difficult to draw conclusions regarding the suitability of different corrective feedback approaches due to the 'varied populations' of students and 'research designs' (Hyland & Hyland, 2006, p.84). Third, the final question that I have been confronted with is whether there is any potential relationship between the students' and teachers' perceptions of corrective feedback approaches in the process of feedback provision in the Korean EFL secondary level context, for example in relation to English proficiency, students' individual differences, student motivation, etc. Having frequently encountered difficulties in EFL writing education in my professional practice as a teacher, programme developer and researcher, I have long been searching for appropriate guidelines regarding teachers' written corrective feedback with which to help students, particularly Korean EFL secondary students, to improve their writing.

Finally, reviewing a range of studies on corrective feedback, I have come to the conclusion that 'what works best' in non-Korean EFL contexts is not necessarily meaningful in the Korean context as there is unlikely to be a single answer that suits every context without a thorough investigation. Inevitably, in this study, the questions were designed and adjusted to the requirements of the current research to explore the complexities in shaping teachers' written corrective feedback approaches to students' written work in the Korean EFL secondary private language school context. The study attempts to explore the internal and external links between teachers' stated beliefs, perceptions, and practices which are embedded in this context. Also, it examines whether such beliefs and perceptions match their actual feedback approaches provided in students' essay papers, providing detailed analyses and interpretations of the critical issues affecting their feedback approaches in response to students' perceptions of corrective feedback. This issue constitutes an important aspect of the research aimed at increasing understanding of how teachers prepare and provide corrective feedback and how students perceive such feedback approaches in the Korean EFL context.

1.4 Rationale

This study is to contribute to the need for research reformulating the existing practice of Korean EFL writing education and thus bridge the gap in the existing literature on EFL writing contexts. Examination of a range of empirical studies (e.g. Chandler, 2003; Conrad & Goldstein, 1999; Ferris, 1995, 2006; Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005) lends support to the notion that despite the positive impact of the specific feedback approaches investigated, it has not been possible to provide suitable guidelines for EFL teachers in the research context considered here. As some studies (e.g. Ferris, 2007; 2011; Hyland & Hyland, 2006) have pointed out, the suitability of certain feedback approaches remains an unresolved issue; this might not be the result of the feedback approaches themselves but be caused by differences in the diverse research contexts and the varying populations of teachers and students investigated in such research settings. Therefore, this investigation focuses on interpreting possible relationships affecting participants' beliefs and perceptions in relation to current feedback practice in the research context. It is also expected to contribute to pedagogical improvements in teaching EFL writing, not only for Korean EFL secondary school students in private language schools, but also many other young EFL writers in similar contexts. More importantly, the results of this study are aimed at teacher training institutions to enable them to provide more relevant pre-service and in-service professional EFL writing teacher development programmes. It might also have implications for policy makers in English curriculum in mainstream schooling.

What makes the study different from earlier research in corrective feedback is its specific context (see Chapter 2) and the participants investigated in the study. The key points are: i) to understand the stated beliefs and perceptions of Korean EFL secondary school teachers concerning written corrective feedback, who have also learned EFL, unlike the English native speaker teachers in most past studies (e.g. Chandler, 2003; Conrad & Goldstein, 1999; Ferris, 1995, 1999, 2002, 2003, 2006; Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005); ii) to understand the perceptions of Korean EFL secondary school students, who are an underexplored age group in the existing literature; iii) to explore the extent of agreement between the teachers' stated beliefs and their actual approaches to students' written work by comparing the two. Each of these points will be elaborated upon below.

First, it expands the scope of existing research by exploring the extent of 'what teachers believe' and 'how it affects their approaches'. Rather than solely identifying teachers' perceptions, this study attempts to identify the gap between what they believe and what actually occurs in the classroom. As the characteristics of the specific context and its participants might result in generating different contextual elements, such as the goals of learning, student motivation and their proficiency levels (Hyland & Hyland, 2006), the study was undertaken aiming to understand the complexities embedded in Korean EFL secondary school teachers' stated beliefs in relation to their adoption of particular approaches in the specific private language school context in Korea.

Second, in previous studies (e.g. Chandler, 2003; Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Ferris, 1995, 1997; Ferris & Helt, 2000; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Leki, 2006; Robb et al., 1986), the majority of the teachers investigated were native speakers of English, whereas this study investigates Korean EFL secondary school teachers who also learned EFL. Thus, how Korean EFL teachers whose first language is not English perceive how they provide feedback to their students is of importance. It is worth exploring how non-native English teachers perceive their feedback approaches as a tool aimed at benefiting their students' writing performance and what actual approaches are used in the actual feedback samples in response to their students' written work.

Finally, this study examines the perceptions of relatively young students (aged 13–15) in an EFL private language school context, a student group which has gained nearly no attention in the existing literature on teachers' written corrective feedback approaches (Ferris, 2002). Although many studies have addressed students' perceptions of teachers' corrective feedback approaches in ESL/EFL contexts, the majority of their findings have resulted mainly from tertiary level students of English in ESL settings (e.g. Ferris, 1995; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Ferris et al., 1997; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994; Montgomery & Baker, 2007; Robb et al., 1986). As previously mentioned, middle school students' perceptions of teachers' corrective feedback are under-researched, in particular in the private language school context, thus giving rise to the specific context of this research. The particular background to the lack of

research on this age group is further explained separately in the next chapter (Chapter 2).

1.5 Study aims and research questions

The aims of the study are to investigate Korean EFL secondary school teachers' stated beliefs, perceptions and current practices concerning their written corrective feedback as well as students' perceptions concerning their teachers' written corrective feedback in a private language school context. Its further objectives are elaborated upon as follows:

1. To investigate the stated beliefs of Korean EFL secondary school teachers with regard to written corrective feedback.
2. To explore Korean EFL teachers' perceptions of written corrective feedback approaches and their major concerns regarding feedback provision.
3. To provide Korean EFL writing teachers with insights into contextualized written corrective feedback approaches for use in the future and in particular, how to respond effectively to EFL secondary school students' needs.
4. To contribute to the implementation of professional teacher training in terms of providing more relevant pre-service and in-service programmes for professional EFL writing teacher development.
5. To increase the current research base on Korean secondary students' EFL writing education in the South Korean context and other similar contexts.

The research comprises a mixed methods study to understand the complexities embedded in Korean EFL secondary school teachers' stated beliefs of written corrective feedback and their adoption of those approaches in EFL writing classrooms. The dataset for the study includes a student questionnaire, teacher interviews and teachers' documents concerning actual feedback samples. The reasons I chose mixed methods for the study were: i) to strengthen the findings of the study by using multiple data sources (i.e. triangulation) and ii) to ensure the feasibility of the study bearing in mind the nature of the research population as the student participants were under-aged middle school students (Bryman, 2001; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003).

The study was designed to shed light on the nature of Korean EFL secondary school stated beliefs of written corrective feedback, interpreting the extent of agreement

between teachers' reported beliefs and actual approaches in corrective feedback in response to the students' written work, as well as possible relationships between students' and teachers' perceptions of corrective feedback.

The following research questions were based on the premise that teachers' written corrective feedback may benefit EFL writing education for Korean secondary school students when teachers understand individual students' specific needs in the context:

1. What are the stated beliefs of Korean EFL secondary school teachers with regard to written corrective feedback?
2. What are Korean EFL secondary school teachers' perceptions concerning their written corrective feedback?
3. What are Korean EFL secondary students' perceptions concerning their teachers' written corrective feedback?
4. What corrective feedback practices do Korean EFL teachers implement in their writing classes?

1.6 Structure of the dissertation

This study is organized as follows:

Chapter 1 provides an introductory background to the study, addressing the rationale and the significance of the study, its aims and the specific research questions.

Chapter 2 presents the specific Korean EFL context, addressing secondary school students' EFL writing education in South Korea and focusing on 1) socio-political issues pertaining to English education, 2) socio-economic issues in English education, 3) pedagogical issues in English writing education, and 4) challenges in current practices of EFL writing education in private language school contexts in South Korea.

Chapter 3 presents the theoretical framework of this study and a detailed review of the relevant literature in terms of theoretical and empirical findings.

Chapter 4 presents the research design and methodology used in the research. It briefly discusses the relevance of the triangulated mixed methods approach used in this study. It also provides information about the research procedures and research instruments, including sources of data, methods of data collection and data analysis and validity and reliability of the research.

Chapter 5 presents the findings of the four research questions of the study. It consists of two parts: the findings from quantitative and qualitative analyses. The findings and analyses of the four research questions are provided.

Chapter 6 provides a detailed interpretation of the study findings in the order of four research questions, followed by the research contributions to the advancement of knowledge. It concludes with a brief summary of the main themes in the findings of the study.

Chapter 7 presents a wide range of relevant conclusions emerging from this study and discusses the limitations of the current study based on critical reflection and recommendations for addressing the problems raised in future research.

Chapter 2: Context of the study

2.1 Introduction

To provide a better understanding of the specific context of Korean EFL writing classrooms, and further explain the background to the study, this chapter illustrates the following three aspects: i) socio-political issues pertaining to English education in South Korea; ii) socioeconomic issues related to English education provided by private language schools (*hagwons*); iii) sociocultural issues concerning *hagwon* education in South Korea. Each section provides a reflective account to provide a better understanding of the specific requirements of this study.

2.2 Socio-political context of English language education in South Korea

This section reviews the socio-political context of South Korea as it is central to understanding the existing pedagogical challenges in English writing education. In South Korea, English education has been affected by social, political and economic conditions (Baca, 2011; Park, J.K., 2007; 2009; Park, S.J. & Abelmann, 2004; Seth, 2002, 2005). The outcome has been a vicious cycle of three distinctive phenomena in the field of English education: dissatisfaction with the national educational policy, a tremendous demand for private education and a lack of confidence in teachers' linguistic competence (Baca, 2011; Bray, 1999, 2006, 2009, 2010; Kim, J.O., 2012; Park J.K., 2009; Park, S.J. & Abelmann, 2004). Bray (2006) argues that such circumstances have affected the teaching and learning of English in Korea for the past few decades and that they are considered obstacles faced by many teachers and educational practitioners.

2.2.1 Globalization and 'English fever'

Koreans do not need English in their everyday lives. Lee, J. (2010) cited that an EFL country like South Korea where English is rarely used has become 'one of the largest consumers of English with English education market' (*Korea Times*, 2008), showing a deep scepticism about the changes in Korean government's English education policies (e.g. adopting English immersion into public instruction, Content and Language Integrated Learning).

Korean school students have to start studying English from year 3 in primary school. Also, their parents take them to private tutoring schools, anticipating that their children's English skills will improve as long as the children attend such schools. This phenomenon may briefly be described as Koreans' craze for English, so-called 'English fever', which might have resulted from 'the impact of the new government's policy toward the socio-political role of English' (Jung & Norton, 2002, p. 246). To begin with, this study needs to frame the changes in EFL education in South Korea and more importantly government policy, which has led to 'English fever' for more than just middle-class parents in society.

In recent decades, education worldwide has been changing its focus and thus the English educational system in Korea has also been affected (Jung & Norton, 2002). Educational reforms in South Korea were implemented in the 1990s by former president, Kim Young Sam and the policies of English language education during the past few decades have evolved to facilitate the national educational goals with a strong emphasis on *globalization* policy. One of the most important goals of the educational reforms was to enable Koreans to understand and equip themselves with the necessary skills and knowledge to take an active role in varying global settings. This has brought about several impacts on English education in Korea.

Objectives of English education in the state school system

Emphasizing the importance of English language use in Korean EFL language classrooms, Brown's (1987) 'communicative approach' has drawn considerable attention (Shin, H., 2007). The goal of communicative language teaching (CLT) is to develop communicative competence rather than grammatical competence, emphasizing the pragmatic, authentic, functional use of language for meaning (Brown, 1994). However, despite efforts to introduce CLT in Korea, the new approach has not been successful due to the lack of qualified teachers in public schools able to teach English in a communicative way (Shin S. J., 2005). Not only have Korean EFL teachers at state schools not been sufficiently educated in the communicative approach, but also the curriculum was not designed for such a purpose (Kim, Y.H., 2013).

Meanwhile, the literature on teachers' perceptions of writing education has empirically demonstrated that the unsuccessful outcomes of writing education at secondary state schools has several causes: i) lack of a writing curriculum; ii) lack of teachers'

confidence in their English ability; iii) lack of teacher training programmes; iv) test-oriented instruction; v) lack of students' English ability (Kim, Y.H., 2013). The following excerpt is taken from a teacher interview concerning factors that cause problems in teaching English writing in the current state school context:

> 앞에서 그래마 하고, 그 그래머를 이용해서 연계 롸이팅을 시키자나요. 심화 학습차원에서 문법을 제공해서 문장을 만들게 하는 의미로 롸이팅을 시키죠….리스닝도 있고 리딩도 있고, 롸이팅도 있고 다 있는데, 그냥 오직 리딩만, 리딩 본문만 하고 넘어가고, 쓰기까지 그것까지 하기에는 시간이 없죠.
>
> (Kim, Y.H., 2013, p. 198)

> We teach grammar section first, and for the writing, we sometimes ask the students to produce sentence level composition using the grammar point taught. That's all about teaching English writing in school classroom… Of course, we do have different parts in each unit: listening, reading, and sentence-writing. However, we only focus on teaching reading sections and skip the rest of the sections due to the time constraints. We don't have time for teaching writing.
>
> (Author's translation)

Realizing the situation, the Korean government announced that it would place a native-speaking English teacher in public schools, allowing the students to learn communicative skills, including writing and speaking. Also, drawing on the need to improve the communicative competence in English of both students and teachers, the government launched English recruiting programmes administered by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MEST). However, despite the government's efforts, there have been constant debates concerning the quality of instruction, the effectiveness of programme management and native English teachers' qualifications.

English as a tool of assessment

The impact of the government's globalization policy on English education in Korea has been the generation of considerable pressure, leading to people perceiving that English language proficiency is the key to achieving their desired goals in life and also to improving social success. For instance, high scores on English proficiency tests (IELTS, TEPS, TOEFL and TOEIC) are closely associated with admission to elite schools and job success in South Korea and have also become the most important criteria when applying for jobs (Koo, 2007). Since the introduction of the National

English Ability Test (NEAT), a domestic, standardized English proficiency test developed by the Korea Institute for Curriculum and Instruction (KICE), more attention has been paid to English writing education, although direct methods of assessment have not yet been implemented in a large-scale English writing test in Korea (Kim, Y.H., 2013).

With the emergence of a competitive atmosphere across the nation and to keep up with the increasing demand from students and parents, the goals of English education have shifted to attaining the English language proficiency required for admission to elite secondary schools. In addition, some highly motivated students and parents are willing to seek opportunities to study English in English-speaking countries where they can maximize the exposure to the target language. According to statistics reported by the Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, a considerable number (15,237) of young children from elementary and middle schools in Korea were sent abroad to study English in 2007, and most studied overseas for six months or longer (*Korea Times,* 2008). Thus, parents spend their money on increasing their children's educational opportunities as they view the state school curriculum as unable to provide adequate education in learning such skills in Korea (Bray, 1999).

2.2.2 New direction in the goals of English education in Korea

The following excerpt from the statement of purpose of the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development (MEHRD) states the curriculum standards for English education in South Korea:

> Students in a global age must have an adequate command of the language and equip themselves to effectively perform their work in a variety of global markets in the future. The curriculum facilitates the enhanced presence of international perspectives for students as future global leaders and citizens by widening the scope to include a broad knowledge of international society and diverse cultures.
>
> (MEHRD, 2007, p. 2)

Due to the government's new policy, Korean students' and parents' pursuit of native-like English competence may have contributed to increasing the demand for specialized private tutoring in English. For years, many Korean parents have been rushing to private language schools to prepare their children for a new curriculum resulting from the government's new policy and the drastic changes affecting

pedagogical practice in Korean secondary schools (Lee, J., 2010). Also, in 2010, as part of the new educational policy, so-called 'global education', the Korean government announced that the English assessment component of the National College Entrance Examination could be replaced with NEAT. The skills assessed in the new test include reading, listening, speaking and writing, while the old examination was designed to test only reading and listening abilities (KICE & MEST, 2011). What made the new test different were the newly added sections on speaking and writing aiming to improve practical English communication skills required in the era of globalization.

It was believed that the new test would have an impact on the way English was taught in state schools (*Korea Times*, 2013). The Korean government attempted to replace the old national test with NEAT, but the test was unable to prove its value as an English proficiency test. Thus, the old English assessment system still remained using the national test. However, some universities announced that the NEAT score could be used as a criterion in the admission process from 2014 academic year (*Korea Times*, 2011). With the development of NEAT, a great deal of attention had been paid to English writing education, as well as to speaking. The English department at the Ministry of Education announced that the content developed for the test can be used for future language proficiency tests (*Korea Times*, 2013).

2.2.3 Insufficient writing education in the state school curriculum

Looking into research on current practices of English writing education in South Korea, English writing seems to have received little attention in either public or private educational settings. Writing is not only a problem for secondary school students. Choi, J. (2006) undertook a comparative study to examine differences in English essay writing styles between 46 Korean native-speaker students and 46 English native-speaker students, all studying at a US university. They examined error types, textual organization and cohesion devices and concluded that the Korean ESL students' low English writing proficiency mainly resulted from lack of writing education in their school curriculum and the fact that they had never been provided with English writing education at school. For this reason, the students faced more difficulties in generating ideas in English, identifying linguistic structures and using the appropriate vocabulary.

This issue continues in EFL classrooms in Korea and the students remain at low levels of proficiency in English writing.

Another study on Korean EFL students' writing education claimed that their low proficiency in EFL writing is predominantly due to L1 interference (Kim, T.Y., 2009) and moreover that they suffer from a lack of writing in the school curriculum both in their L1 and English. Due to their insufficient experience of writing education, Korean secondary school learners lack confidence when they need to produce writing in their L2 and are overly dependent on their L1 writing ability as well as their teachers' comprehensive corrections on their written papers. According to Kim, T.Y. (2009), students' L1 literacy development is the most important knowledge that can be applied in their essay writing in a foreign language (FL). Indeed, L1 literacy is a significant variable affecting the process and product of English essay writing (Kim, T.Y., 2009, p. 108). In this regard, low L1 proficiency also has a strong impact on students' performance in English writing as problems may well result from predominantly negative L1 transfer or the transfer of errors due to translation (Kim, T.Y., 2009; Kim, Y.H., 2013).

Based on the above, it is perhaps inevitable that private language schools are responsible for providing a wide range of programmes for students at all levels. Numerous Korean primary, secondary and tertiary level students acquire knowledge and understanding of English writing by attending private language school classes. The significance of this study is that it attempts to suggest possible solutions to common issues in this very context.

2.3 Socioeconomic issues of English education in South Korea

It seems that middle-class parents have been influenced by cosmopolitan discourses urging them to prepare 'their offspring to be adaptable and flexible' (Campbell et al., 2009, p. 27) in a global context. It is believed that linguistic ability is a critical tool for staying competitive in diverse worldwide business settings. In addition, due to the recent policy changes concerning student admissions to universities in Korea, secondary school students depend to a great extent on after-school tutoring programmes provided by private institutions in Korea (Kim & Lee 2001, p. 8). Moreover, Korean parents expect that English proficiency will ensure their children's academic success in the future. Korean parents consider that the quality of education

at state schools is not adequate for their children to accomplish their academic goals concerning university admissions. In the absence of effective public education in Korea, English education is highly competitive for learners and private education providers (*hagwons*).

Bray (1999) described the education system in *hagwons* as follows:

> First, private supplementary tutoring only exists because the mainstream education exists; second, as the size and shape of the mainstream system change, so do the size and shape of supplementary tutoring; third, in almost all societies much more public attention focuses on the mainstream than on its shadow; and fourth, the features of the shadow system are much less distinct than those of the mainstream system.
>
> (Bray, 1999, p. 17)

Hagwons are considered organizations 'providing tutoring by private entrepreneurs and individuals for profit-making purposes' (Bray, 1999, p. 20). The classes in *hagwons* are provided to gain financial profit (Bray & Kwok, 2003) and therefore students' participation in the classes is based on the parents' ability to pay for the tuition. In relation to Korean parents' demand for private tutoring, their considerable expenditure on private education has often been discussed in the literature (e.g. Bray & Kwok, 2003; Jeon & Lee, 2006; Jeong, 2004; Lee & Shin, 2008; Park, J.K., 2009; Seth, 2002). *Hagwons* are free from governmental control. Due to the substantial fees required for the courses, some people argue that the *hagwon* is a source of inequality between those who can afford it and those who cannot. The following excerpts below help us better understand how the image of the *hagwon* is envisioned in the minds of the public in Korea.

> Media claims were that the current proficiency of both teachers and the students is too low for the successful implementation of English-medium classes. The government was presented as if they were forcing English education reform without necessarily considering the current domestic situation. Another strong argument was that the policy would exacerbate the English Divide which describes the strong relationship between economic wealth and English proficiency. It was feared that more emphasis was given to English in public schools, the more people would flock to private cram schools, and as a result, the gap between social classes would be further widened.
>
> (Lee, J., 2009, p. 36)

> The amount of money spent on education in 2006 reached up to 20 trillion won or approximately $20 billion, according to a Korean daily newspaper The Hankyoreh (Park, C.S., 2007). Korean parents 'invest' a large portion of their income on their children's education. The education includes all extracurricular lessons, such as cram schools ('hagwon'), private tutoring (kwaoe), English camps (yeongeocamp), and even language training abroad (haewoeyonsu).
>
> (Park, J.K., 2009, p. 51)

These excerpts demonstrate that the image of the *hagwon* is reflected somewhat negatively. Faced with such backlash from the public, the Korean government attempted to strict regulations and controls over the schools (Kim & Lee, 2001). Critics from a socioeconomic standpoint on private tutoring argue that the expenses are 'an economic burden for households and it causes the distortion of equity in society due to household budgetary constraints' (Kim J.H., 2007, p. 3). Due to the negative atmosphere in society and the government's control policy to hinder private language school education, there has been nearly no effort to provide quality programmes and conduct research in this area, which could explain why very little attention has been paid to research on private language school programmes until recently.

Despite criticism, the escalation in expenditure on private tutoring has not ceased over the past decades. South Koreans spent '$19 billion on private tutoring in 2009' and 70–80% of school students were enrolled in private language schools in 2011 (Choi, 2012, p. 8). Also, elementary and secondary school students perceive that the *hagwon* is the best way to achieve good grades in the school tests and ultimately to be successful in gaining admission to the better universities in Korea (Kim & Park, 2012).

Based on the review of the literature above, it can be argued that there are few students who have not attended *hagwons* in Korea for the past few decades. English writing education is highly dependent on educational programmes provided by *hagwons* (cf. Kim, T.Y., 2008; Park, J.K., 2009). Consequently, with the growing rate of participation in *hagwons*, increased attention has been paid recently to the significance of improving instructional approaches and teacher and curriculum development in private school settings.

2.4 Sociocultural issues in English writing education in South Korea

Hagwon education aims to provide Korean school students with supplementary tutoring for academic purposes; such schools exist all over the world (Baker et al., 2001; Bray 1999). Numerous middle school students in South Korea receive academic tutoring in private tutoring schools after their regular school hours. Parents pay for lessons, expecting these extra lessons to increase their children's academic achievement. *Hagwons* have experienced rapid expansion in South Korea due to the competitive pressure of high-stakes achievement tests (Bray, 1999; Russell, 2002). In some studies (e.g. Bray, 1999; Russell, 2002), the term 'cram school' is used for tutoring institutions that provide enrichment programmes for achieving students' educational goals related to entrance to upper schools and for high-stakes English proficiency tests (e.g. IELTS, TOEFL and TOEIC). Each *hagwon* runs its courses differently and the purposes of their programmes vary from school to school in Korea.

Clearly, the discussions in sections 2.2 and 2.3 explain why and how young Korean students have been studying English writing. It is worth pointing out that many Korean students have been able to achieve their target proficiency level in English writing by taking the courses provided by *hagwons* over past decades. However, despite the rising demand for *hagwon* education in Korean society, the quality of instruction in *hagwons* has been neglected in the educational sector as they are often considered supplementary or optional programs. Compared to mainstream education in state schools, the role of *hagwons* is often interpreted as supplemental in the provision of education; but ironically, in South Korea, it does not seem to be 'supplemental' but to be 'central' in terms of providing English writing classes.

2.4.1 Goals of instruction in *hagwons*

As English writing has been used as a tool for assessing students' language competence in high-stakes tests (e.g. IELTS, TOEFL and TOEIC), as discussed above, demand for English writing education is related to academic essay writing rather than creative writing. Consequently, English writing courses provided by private institutions in South Korea aim to prepare students for the writing test sections of various tests (e.g. IELTS, TOEFL and TOEIC). However, instructional methods in English writing education in *hagwons* might vary based on institutional circumstances, such as the number of students in a classroom or teachers' qualifications and experience.

Instructional methods are considered within the various goals of the courses, ranging from sentence composition to discourse-level essay writing. Moreover, based on my professional classroom observations of such language programmes in private language schools, English teachers in Korean *hagwon*s are primarily concerned with grammar and mechanics in marking students' written work (Kim, M.K., 2003). Thus, in dealing with essay-level English writing, most Korean EFL teachers provide corrective feedback comprehensively in response to the students' errors in their written work, employing their own feedback principles due to the lack of standard teaching guidelines or management regulations in such schools.

In addition, research has shown that for EFL beginner students, it is essential to build 'a sentence structuring skill in English whereas in the ESL context, this exercise is used to enhance non-native English leaners' language use' (Matsuda, 2003, p. 22). In the classrooms investigated in this study, the essential goals of English writing instruction were established as enabling students to produce a five paragraph English essay independently. To achieve this, teachers' instructional focus varies, targeting three different levels from sentence composition to essay-level writing. However, in general, sentence-level writing in many *hagwons* is often taught as a sentence structure build-up exercise for beginner-level writing courses. Regarding essay-level writing, courses are offered to more advanced students since the students feel that academic essay writing is extremely challenging as they need to understand how to render their thoughts in a foreign language using their English grammar and vocabulary skills (Kroll, 1990). Essentially, teachers have to weigh their choice of different feedback approaches to meet students' needs based on their writing weaknesses. For instance, a study investigating Korean university students' errors in their formal and informal letters suggests that these mostly result from L1 transfer, including the use of the wrong words, prepositions and articles (Lee E.P., 2001). It is worth noting that their frequent errors often arise from the transfer from Korean to English, as well as from developing an essay structure in writing using the features of academic language in their written texts.

2.4.2 Instructional methods in *hagwons*

Another study has shown that Korean EFL writing teachers are not used to dealing with students' errors in essay papers as they may not have acquired sufficient

knowledge concerning the technical and generic aspects of English writing in their previous education; therefore, the teachers themselves often doubt whether they have sufficient English writing ability (Kim, M.K., 2002). Thus, English teachers in Korea often seem to have difficulties with the provision of effective corrective feedback, particularly in dealing with the wide range of student errors in written work.

For EFL students, they are usually given general guidelines by teachers detailing the writing tasks. Their completion of such tasks depends to a great extent on their motivation and previous writing experience. In the specialized *hagwon* programmes, Korean middle school EFL students are scheduled to learn a series of English text types focusing on the test requirements within a targeted time. Under these circumstances, the students tend to depend on teachers' handwritten feedback on their essay papers and they are expected to self-edit based on teachers' corrective feedback, which they believe can improve their writing skills (e.g. Diab, 2005; Ferris, 1995; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994; Lee, 2004, 2008). The current method of English writing instructional practice is that the students produce and submit their first drafts and the teachers provide error correction or general comments. More importantly, private language school programmes are relatively fast paced as the courses are designed to maximize the outcomes of learning; thus, teachers are concerned mostly with time constraints and attaining target scores on tests in accordance with students' specific needs. Bearing in mind their responsibility in terms of feedback provision, for teachers it is difficult to determine which errors they should focus on in terms of areas for improvement in student papers. Studies on ESL/EFL corrective feedback approaches in secondary school contexts have reported that teachers tend to focus more on *grammar* and *mechanic*s rather than *content* and *organization* in essay writing, using controlled composition techniques or copying individual sentences and neglecting the importance of literacy development (e.g. Fu, 1995, 2003). This may closely reflect the experience of Korean teachers. Reflecting on the specific goals in *hagwons*, Korean EFL teachers are inevitably asked to provide lessons to prepare students for the exact content that might be included in examinations. In such settings, the students are trained simply to memorize the model templates required by high-stakes English proficiency tests and they are expected to produce a similar text in their future tests (Bray, 1999).

Moreover, Korean EFL teachers in *hagwons* seem to mark students' papers based on their own teaching principles and previous experiences in their own learning. However, marking requires careful consideration of student variables (e.g. developmental levels in both language proficiency and content knowledge, distinctive patterns of linguistic features in the L1, time constraints, motivation for learning, etc.). These factors may, in turn, influence how students perceive and make use of teachers' corrective feedback in their self-editing (Goldstein, 2001, 2004).

Thus, there is a need for structured investigations to seek and address crucial issues embedded in perceptions of teachers' choice of corrective feedback approaches and students' responses towards them. It is worth pointing out that teachers' feedback provision occurs interactively as a part of the whole context of learning and teaching (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). However, it has been unclear how teachers select and correct the errors in students' papers in the current practices of teaching writing. In fact, this is one of the crucial issues to be addressed in this research as it has not been explored until recently. It can be assumed that teachers' feedback approaches in the context of this study depend on their subjective judgment in instructional methods related to writing. Their focus in corrective feedback on students' written work might vary. Hence, there is a need to understand the teachers' beliefs about their criteria for selecting errors and approaches to correction of students' written work.

2.5 Summary

This chapter presents how the study context is shaped in relation to English language education in South Korea. The above discussion has addressed the specific circumstances concerning: 1) socio-political issues pertaining to English education, 2) socioeconomic issues in English education, 3) pedagogical issues related to English writing education and 4) challenges and issues in current practices of English education in private language schools (*hagwons*).

Until recently, no research had examined students' and teachers' perceptions of teachers' corrective feedback for secondary school EFL students in writing classrooms in the private language school setting. In such contexts, teachers' written feedback provision and their selection of feedback approaches are highly dependent on the policies of the private language institutions. Also, due to the lack of instructional guidelines and assessment rubrics for English writing programmes, the ways in which

teachers' corrective feedback are practised in the classroom vary considerably. Also, teacher's feedback approaches in response to students' written work are often affected by their personal beliefs concerning instructional methods. Moreover, the individual teacher's own linguistic competence and prior educational background in English play a critical role in the process of corrective feedback provision.

Finally, reflecting on challenging issues in teaching Korean secondary EFL students, they tend to have very little knowledge of language forms or the development of rhetorical patterns in academic writing as a result of insufficient literacy education in schools. Thus, teachers need to understand where the particular types of student errors come from (e.g. simply lack of grammatical knowledge or linguistic errors resulting from L1 patterns) and how the students respond to their feedback on written work. If this is neglected in using and adjusting their feedback approaches, corrective feedback may not benefit the students in terms of delivering improvements in their writing. It is therefore essential that they equip themselves with critical knowledge regarding L2 writing instruction.

Chapter 3: Literature review

3.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature on teachers' beliefs, perceptions and practices concerning teachers' corrective feedback in second language writing classrooms, as well as students' perceptions of teachers' corrective feedback approaches. First, I will begin with an overview of the theoretical framework of the study in 3.2. Then, I provide an in-depth discussion of central concepts in sociocultural theory (SCT) (Vygotsky, 1978) and its application to the context of this study. I draw on this theory to explain Korean EFL teachers' stated beliefs and perceptions concerning written corrective feedback approaches as a socially situated process in Korean EFL secondary school context. Following this, an overview of empirical studies on teachers' corrective feedback approaches in second language writing and students' and teachers' perceptions of these approaches will be provided. A wide range of issues arising from previous studies on teachers' perceptions concerning corrective feedback approaches in second language writing will be discussed under the themes embedded in the research questions such as teachers' beliefs underpinning their perceived approaches, different typologies of corrective feedback approaches from Ellis (2009), and how the typologies are used in teachers' corrective feedback approaches.

In terms of the mechanism of teachers' corrective feedback, the approaches to teachers' corrective feedback in L2 writing classroom and students' perceptions of such feedback approaches used in their written work will be critically appraised. The central theoretical and empirical insights from the literature on second language writing instruction will be outlined as follows: i) sociocultural theory in second language writing education; ii) socio-political and pedagogical issues in the South Korean L2 writing context; iii) empirical studies of teachers' and students' perceptions of corrective feedback and the practice of teachers' feedback approaches; iv) related issues regarding the tailoring of feedback approaches to suit secondary school students' needs in the Korean private language school context; v) various aspects of teachers' beliefs, perceptions and practices concerning corrective feedback approaches.

3.2 Overview of the theoretical framework

This section provides an overview of the theoretical framework used in the study. This study places English writing education in South Korea in its sociocultural, socio-economic and socio-political context. It starts from the premise that Korean EFL secondary school students can benefit from teachers' corrective feedback in their learning and development when teachers' pay attention to students' needs and goals. Regarding the Vygotskian concept of 'negotiation of feedback' (Vygotsky, 1978), the linkages between Korean EFL secondary school teachers' stated beliefs, perceptions and practices concerning written corrective feedback in the Korean EFL writing classroom are investigated. This study is to provide a better understanding of how the teachers' beliefs of corrective feedback approaches are shaped and what influences the formulation of their perceptions of such feedback, investigating possible relationships between the perceptions of students and teachers.

Reflecting the lack of English writing education in Korean secondary state schools and the fact that the classes comprise young students with little writing experience, both in their mother tongue (Korean) and the foreign language (English), I employ 'sociocultural theory' (Vygotsky, 1978), which views writing as a socially situated process and emphasizes the relationship between such social actions. Sociocultural approaches to language learning and development originate from the work of Vygotsky (1978), who asserted that 'humans are best understood in terms of how they use cultural products to create new cultural forms that allow them to regulate their sociocultural behaviour' (as cited by Lantolf & Thorne, 2007, p. 197). According to the theory, students' language learning occurs socio-cultural dimension through collaborative work between a teacher and a student, involving either oral or written communication. However, despite the original conceptualization of SCT which emphasizes the actions of learners, this study focuses on internal actions, emphasizing the perceptions of students and teachers toward such 'a social phenomenon embedded in specific cultural, historical and institutional contexts' (Villamil & Guerrero, 2006, p. 23).

3.3 Sociocultural theory in second language learning

Together with the popularity of the SCT conceptualization in research in the L1 context, it has also made a considerable contribution in L2 and FL learning contexts. In recent

years, researchers have become more interested in how teachers can support their students in learning and using the target language in students' written work (e.g. Conrad & Goldstein, 1999; Diab, 2005; Ellis, 2009; Ferris, 2003, 2004, 2006, 2007; Ferris et al., 2000; Hyland & Hyland, 2006; Leki, 1991, 2006; Lightbown & Spada, 1999; Montgomery & Baker, 2007; Saito, 1994). The following section discusses the main theories and the central concepts of sociocultural perspectives in second language writing education.

3.3.1 Vygotsky's sociocultural theory

Vygotsky's (1978) view is that human beings in a particular culture perceive world phenomena according to their cultural systems. In this process, language is a critical means of adjusting themselves culturally to any particular sociocultural context. He used this idea to highlight the manner in which humans use 'cultural artefacts' in a highly creative process. This emphasizes that the outcomes of human development result from 'the integration of socially and culturally constructed forms of mediation into human activity' (Lantolf, 2000, p. 8). According to Lantolf and Thorne (2007), 'language is the central vehicle whereby humans mediate the process to participate in cultural and linguistic formed settings' (p. 197). In essence, the central concept of the theory lies in the notion that language is an interactional tool available to participants engaged in a variety of socially constructed interactions and thereafter human perceptions can be constructed and mediated through language within a social context (Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf &Thorne, 2007; Vygotsky, 1978).

For example, in a classroom of learning a second or foreign language, students tend to depend on their teachers, and need to communicate with their teachers since this is an important means of learning knowledge and necessary language skills (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). Reflecting on Vygotskian views, in the L2 classroom, there are three major concepts related to this culturally created concept: *scaffolding, mediation* and *internalization* (Vygotsky, 1978). I consider teachers' use of corrective feedback in the classroom to be a form of *scaffolding* which provides students with clear guidelines in L2 writing. It can be considered a series of external social activities which can affect students' *internalization of* newly learned knowledge. Such collaborative activities occur through *mediation* of teachers and students in the very particular sociocultural context and as a part of the process of mediation, teachers' corrective feedback requires

students to participate in the interactions in learning, which can gradually bring about students' autonomy in L2 writing (Harris & Hodges, 1996). The primary concept in *scaffolding* is that teachers' support can help their students become autonomous language users with teachers' gradual withdrawal of instructional support.

In line with such theory, teachers' corrective feedback could be an important form of mediated assistance for learners' development in second language writing. From the Vygotskian sociocultural perspective, L2 writing students can improve their L2 writing ability through mediated learning with their teachers if the mediation benefits the students' internalization of knowledge (Vygotsky, 1978). It can be suggested that there are three key elements that play an essential role in the improvement of learning in second language writing: 1) the zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978); 2) goal-oriented 'scaffolding' (Woods et al., 1976); 3) students' internalization of learning through engagement (Vygotsky, 1978). These key concepts are discussed in the following sections.

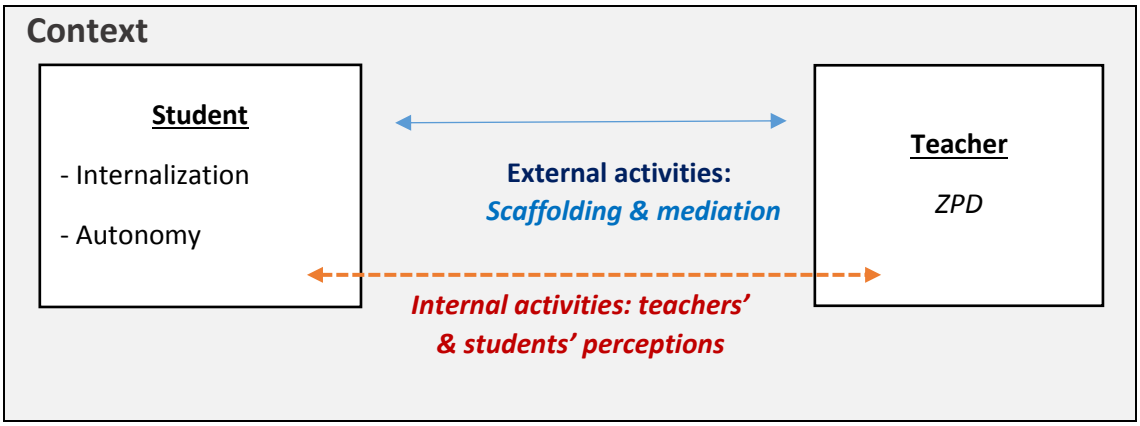


Figure 3.1 SCT in the current research framework

3.3.2 Zone of proximal development

Vygotsky conceived the zone of proximal development (ZPD) as representing the distance between the actual developmental level determined by independent performance and the level of potential development determined through problem solving under adult guidance (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). Figure 3.2 illustrates the gap between the level of students' independent performance and teacher-assisted performance within the ZPD. In ZPD, students' learning occurs on two levels, which form the boundaries of the ZPD (Bodrova & Leong, 2007).

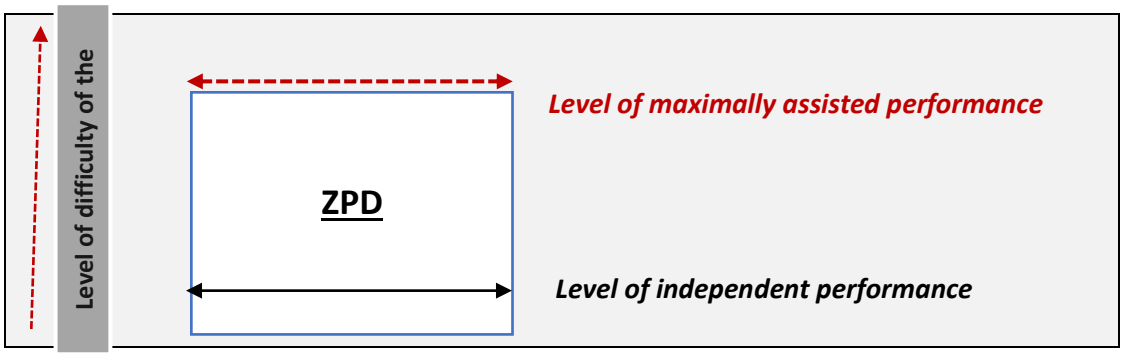


Figure 3.2 Development levels within the ZPD (Bodrova & Leong, 2007, p. 41)

According to Lantolf (2000), successful ZPD learning can be achieved by understanding how mediated tools, which refers to corrective feedback interactions in the current study, are formulated, adjusted and transferred to internalization. The literature (Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Appel, 1994; Vygotsky, 1978) argues that learning occurs 'in' the process of negotiations between an expert and a novice, not 'as a result of' such negotiations. In light of ZPD learning, teachers' corrective feedback is meant to be constantly adjusted and tailored to individual students' ZPDs, which can help students attain their target level proficiency.

Furthermore, it is essential to note that the ZPD shifts to a new level as the student attains a higher level of skills. In Vygotsky's view, 'the cycle of ZPD within a stage of a student's learning will be shifted to the actual development level in the next stage of learning' (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86), which what a student could perform with assistance in the past should become the level of independent performance in the next stage as it involves a sequence of constantly changing zones in ZPD learning (Vygotsky, 1978).

Although the central concept of learning within ZPDs was originally drawn from the context of children's first language development, the ZPD is also adopted to examine how teachers' corrective feedback provides mediated help to the students in the English writing class. In the whole process of feedback provision, some of the students may require the exclusive assistance of their teachers while others may need less assistance. Arguably, teachers will need to determine the appropriate level of assistance needed by the specific individual student. Hence, the mediation provided by an expert language teacher is required to help the students to arrive at their target level of learning (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994). The ZPD is a highly important concept for

Korean EFL writing teachers to be aware of when they adjust their feedback approaches to their students' need. Moreover, the failure to provide suitable corrective feedback can lead students to worry about their learning, which could in turn decrease their motivation, as well as lower their confidence about their instructors' teaching ability (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Ferris, 2004).

3.3.3 Goal-oriented scaffolding

Applying the notion of the ZPD to teachers' corrective feedback approaches in EFL writing, the next issue to be addressed is *how to design and develop an appropriate feedback*. This is discussed in relation to the concept of 'scaffolding', a notion coined by Woods et al. (1976). In L2 writing classroom, this is regarded as 'any type of expert-novice interaction' in which an expert language user models the necessary problem-solving strategies to help a novice learner understand how to accomplish a target task (Adair-Hauck & Donato, 1994; Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Donato, 1994; Lantolf & Aljaafreh, 1995). Considering the notion of scaffolding, it is seen as an instructional technique closely linked to the process of ZPD learning; the provision of scaffolding aims to enable students to perform with increasing independence within their ZPD and as their ZPD shifts upwards. According to the literature, students eventually attain the target levels and the amount of scaffolding can gradually be reduced (Dunn & Lantolf, 1998).

In adopting the two concepts ('scaffolding' and the 'ZPD') in this study, 'scaffolding' is viewed as corrective feedback approaches, providing temporary guidance as teachers lead students to complete their tasks, while the ZPD is aimed at long-term internalized proficiency (Lantolf &Thorne, 2007, p. 209), which plays the role of an important symbolic tool which mediates interpersonal and intrapersonal activities in learning (Walsh, 2002). Applied to an EFL writing classroom, the concept of the ZPD brings together an optimal and feasible framework for teacher corrective feedback. However, in terms of the feedback practice, it requires that teachers undertake systematic and concrete investigation of their students' needs and responses to the feedback given. Considering this, the strength of the teachers' corrective feedback lies in a well-organized collaborative interaction in the process of feedback provision. (e.g. Adair-Hauck & Donato, 1994; Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Donato, 1994; Lantolf & Aljaafreh, 1995; Lantolf & Thorne, 2007).

Considering the probable differences between teachers' feedback approaches and their students' needs, the current study was intended to adopt the primary conceptualization of SCT: scaffolding, mediation, and internalization within ZPD learning. It fits the pedagogical context for teacher's corrective feedback and students' revision process in EFL writing classroom. Also, it describes how Korean EFL students perceive their teachers' corrective feedback as external activities in the context and how teachers perceive their corrective feedback approaches applying the concept of ZPD learning as well as how possible relationships between the two participants groups can be applied to interpreting the current practice of corrective feedback in Korean EFL context.

3.4 Teachers' written corrective feedback

Teachers' corrective feedback is widely used in the field of second language writing instruction. Owing to the adoption of multiple definitions of corrective feedback, it is essential to define the term carefully based on the current research context. The first questions of this research aimed to examine Korean secondary EFL students' perception about teachers' written corrective feedback approaches in students' writing papers. This section offers a brief overview of the definitions of corrective feedback and how teachers' corrective feedback is defined in the current study.

The definition of corrective feedback varies considerably in the literature, with researchers operationalizing it in diverse ways. Chaudron (1988) asserted that corrective feedback incorporates different layers of meaning. In the literature, corrective feedback refers to the 'treatment of error' which minimally 'attempts to inform the learner of the fact of error' (p. 150). Also, according to Wiggins (1993), it refers to 'directly useable information the performer receives pointing to a gap between the current and the desired performance or any feedback provided to a learner. Besides, other researchers (Lightbown & Spada, 1999) emphasized the degree of the explicitness of corrective feedback in second language learning and defined it as various types of teachers' responses to indicate students' incorrect use of the target language in the process of language learning. According to Hyland & Hyland (2006), there are various modes in which teachers' feedback needs to be provided, several of which are used extensively by L2 teachers when correcting their students' errors in

their written papers: 1) teachers' written feedback; 2) teachers' oral feedback; 3) peer feedback; 4) computer-mediated feedback (pp. 89–96).

Reflecting on the particular purposes of corrective feedback in the current study, the goals are to encourage Korean EFL teachers to become more flexible and dynamic in tailoring their feedback approaches in response to students' diverse needs and to help the Korean EFL secondary students to develop self-editing skills by focusing on the types of their errors (Frodesen & Holten, 2003) in the EFL context. Also, in the light of the theoretical framework of the current research (c.f. 3.3.1), this study adopted the definition of corrective feedback from Hyland and Hyland (2006), according to whom corrective feedback is selected and delivered based on mutual understanding between a teacher and a student, viewed from the perspective of feedback as a joint construction in the situated process of learning (p. 14). The notion of corrective feedback in this study refers to the *'written corrective feedback'* students' essay papers to benefit the students in terms of improving both accuracy and fluency in written English.

3.5 Typology of corrective feedback approaches

The second and the third questions of this research are closely related to the approaches of the Korean EFL teachers' written corrective feedback in students' writing papers. This section offers a brief overview of the different typologies of corrective feedback approaches from Ellis (2009) and how the typologies are presented in teachers' corrective feedback approaches (Ellis, 2010).

Ellis (2010) proposed a componential framework for investigating corrective feedback, in which individual differences and contextual factors (e.g. diverse instructional policies, principles during feedback processing) are presented as variables that moderate teachers' corrective feedback. To understand the Korean secondary EFL students' perceptions of teachers' corrective feedback approaches, a slightly modified typology of corrective feedback from Ellis (2009) is used. In the current study, the investigation of students' perceptions of teachers' corrective feedback focuses on two main themes in the nature of feedback approaches. Table 3.1 presents the descriptions of feedback typology based on teachers' strategies for correcting errors in students' written work. Conventionally, six main feedback approaches have existed in the past research of L2 writing. Although they are not the only approaches, they have been widely used as a basis for a systematic approach to investigate the nature of teachers'

feedback used in marking students' written papers (e.g. Chandler, 2003; Ferris 2006; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Lee, 2004; Robb et al., 1986; Saito, 1994). It has been regarded as strategies for providing feedback and frequently presented as main feedback approaches. This study, however, limited its research scope to these two main approaches: i) *explicitness* and ii) *focus of feedback areas*.

The first (*direct feedback*) and the second (*indirect feedback*) concern the explicitness of feedback approaches. The first involves identifying linguistic errors and providing students with the correct form, simply signalling that an error exists. The errors are indicated and located in the text using techniques such as underlining or circling, or by indicating in the margin that an error has been made in a specific line of the text. The third section in Table 3.1 indicates a strategy termed *metalinguistic feedback* (e.g. ww – wrong word; art – article) which provides an explicit comment on the nature of errors using brief grammatical descriptions for each error. An issue here, addressed in the next section, concerns the comprehensiveness of feedback in relation to students' linguistic errors, i.e. whether to correct all the errors or to select certain types of errors in students' written work.

Table 3.1 Typology of corrective feedback

Typology	Description
1. Direct feedback	The teacher provides the student with the correct form.
2. Indirect feedback a. indicating & locating the error b. indication only	The teacher indicates that an error exists but does not provide the correction. a) In written text, this takes the form of underlining and the use of cursors to show omissions in the student's text. b) In written text, this takes the form of an indication in the margin that there is an error is in a line of text.
3. Metalinguistic feedback a. uses of error code b. brief grammatical description	The teacher provides some kind of metalinguistic clue as to the nature of the error. a) The teacher writes codes in the margin (e.g. ww – wrong word; art – article). b) The teacher numbers errors in the text and writes a grammatical description for each numbered error at the bottom of the text.
4. Focus of feedback a. unfocused feedback b. focused feedback	This concerns whether the teacher attempts to correct all (or most) of the students' errors or selects one or two specific types of errors to correct. This distinction can be applied to each of the above options. a) Unfocused corrective feedback is extensive. b) Focused corrective feedback is intensive.
5. Electronic feedback	The teacher indicates an error and provides a hyperlink to a concordance file that provides an example of correct usage.
6. Reformulation	This consists of a native speaker's reworking of the student's entire text to make the language seem as native-like as possible while keeping the content of the original intact.

(Adapted from Ellis, 2009, p. 98)

3.6 Empirical studies of teachers' corrective feedback

Having established the theoretical frameworks underpinning the current study, this section reviews several key studies pertaining to the diverse nature of L2 teachers' corrective feedback approaches to writing from both teachers' and students' perspectives. Based on the research questions posed by the study, the discussion addresses the following areas: i) L2 students' perceptions of the different feedback approaches in terms of explicitness (e.g. direct or indirect), comprehensiveness (e.g. focused or unfocused) and focus (form or content); ii) studies in the Asian secondary school context (Lee, 1997, 2004, 2008, 2011) with an emphasis on secondary school L2 students' perceptions, as well as teachers' reported beliefs of their feedback approaches; iii) influencing factors beyond written corrective feedback.

3.6.1 Overview of empirical studies

This section starts with an overview of the empirical studies (section 3.6.1) before focusing more specifically on empirical studies related to explicitness of corrective feedback (section 3.6.2) and focus (selectivity) of corrective feedback (section 3.6.3). In section 3.6.4, Corrective feedback empirical studies in the Asian context are reviewed. I will also discuss the several existing studies investigating factors in relation to students' perceptions of corrective feedback approaches, focusing on the context, and its participants. In section 3.6.5, issues concerning the EFL students' engagement in corrective feedback process are addressed, followed by a review of selected research on teachers' stated beliefs of their approaches in section 3.6.6. The following section provides the detailed discussion of the studies on teachers' and students' perceptions on explicitness of teachers' corrective feedback approaches in L2 writing and what the assertions in such studies mean for the L2 writing teachers and their students.

3.6.2 Explicitness of teachers' written corrective feedback

To look at some major insights from empirical studies carried out in a variety of contexts, this section discusses 'explicitness' of teachers' feedback approaches. When teachers choose their own approaches in response to the student's errors, they tend to pay attention on how explicitly they correct to make learners self-edit based on the feedback given (Ellis, 2009). The first option is related to the extent of explicitness: i) direct feedback; ii) indirect feedback. According to the literature, *direct feedback* is

considered desirable for correcting forms or structures in students' written work (e.g. Chandler, 2003; Elwood & Bode, 2014; Ferris 2006; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Robb et al., 1986). With explicit guidance (e.g. crossing out or inserting a word), it helps learners to self-correct their errors. In contrast, indirect feedback suggests two strategic manners, *locating* and *coding* (also called labelling), in the sense that they do not provide correct forms. In the case of indirect feedback, without providing corrected form, teachers only locate the errors by means of underlining or circling, or indicate the errors in the students' written work (e.g. Bitchener & Knock, 2010; Chandler, 2003; Ellis, 2009, Lee, 2004), which allows students to understand and reflect about their errors. According to the studies, indirect feedback can help L2 students learn and develop problem-solving skills in the process of self-editing (Ferris, 2002; Hyland, K., 2001; Saito, 1994), and eventually afford greater benefits for students' long-term writing development than direct feedback (Ellis, 2009). These two approaches have been addressed substantially in a number of studies (e.g. Bitchener & Knock, 2010; Chandler, 2003; Ellis, 2009, 2010; Lee, 2004), and presented how students perceived the use of such approaches (Chandler, 2003; Ferris, 2006).

The first issue concerns the degree of explicitness. It is believed that L2 students wish their teachers to provide feedback in a certain manner that they believe can benefit their learning (Bitchener & Knock, 2010; Chandler, 2003; Ellis, 2009; Ferris, 1995; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Hyland, K., 2001; Lee, 2004; Saito, 1994). In the literature, three major types of feedback, comprising direct feedback (providing the correct form) and two forms of indirect feedback, namely locating and coding, were examined (e.g. Chandler, 2003; Ellis, 2009; Ferris, 1995; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Lee, 2004). The studies in various contexts have reported different claims in terms of the students' responses to the different approaches of corrective feedback. (Chandler, 2003; Ferris, 1995; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Hyland & Anan, 2006; Lee, 2004). The reasons were due to the incomparability in terms of their research designs and the influence of variables (e.g. context of study, error types, or participants) (Ferris, 2007). The similar critical stance was taken towards the inconsistency of the study results reported in corrective feedback approaches (e.g. Guenette, 2007; Ferris, 2007). Table 3.2 sets out several studies illustrating a range of L2 students' perceptions including preferences, attitudes or reactions concerning their teachers' feedback approaches. Several key studies on explicitness of corrective feedback used measurement with diverse

methodological errors to investigate their questions. Adopting a similar critical stance in the literature (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Guenette, 2007; Hyland & Hyland 2006), the findings were not clear and casted issues of consistency in the diverse means of measuring accuracy and fluency in textual data or students' performance.

Table 3.2 Studies concerning L2 students' perceptions of teachers' corrective feedback

Author(s)	Research focus	Context & methodology	Findings & suggestions
Ferris and Roberts (2001)	• Tertiary ESL students' preference for distinct types of indirect feedback (coding and underlining) • Uptake in text revisions based on different feedback types • Relationships between students' prior grammar knowledge and their success on self-editing tasks	• 72 university ESL students • four-stage cycle (pre-test, writing, feedback, editing) • multinational students • control group • five targeted error categories	• Groups who received feedback significantly outperformed the no-feedback group on the self-editing task • There were no significant differences between the ''codes'' and ''no-codes'' • Less explicit feedback seemed to help these students to self-edit
Chandler (2003)	Tertiary ESL students' preferences for four different types of feedback and the impact of each feedback approach:1) direct correction, 2) underlining and coding 3) marginal description only 4) underlining only	• University level, first year composition course in an ESL programme • Multinational students (East Asian) • Control group • 14 weeks • Various feedback types for grammatical and lexical accuracy	• Students preferred direct feedback. • When producing accurate revisions, students believed underlining and coding types of feedback to be the best methods for improving their writing. • Marginal description method was least preferred.
Montgomery and Baker (2007)	• Exploring the amount of teachers' feedback focused on two areas: local(grammar, mechanics) and global(content, organization, ideas) written feedback teachers give • How well teachers' self-assessment matches their students' preferences for teachers' feedback focus • Matchless between teachers' self-assessment and their actual performance	• 98 University EFL and ESL students' perceptions in the U.S. • 13 teachers at university English Centre • A full semester • Student questionnaire • Teachers' questionnaire • Teachers' feedback samples in students' essay papers (four drafts for each composition) • Documentary analysis	• Students were satisfied with the amount of feedback given in each of the areas • Teachers give more feedback on grammatical errors (local errors) than they believed they were giving • Teachers give very little feedback on content errors (global errors)

Hedgcock and Lefkowitz (1994)	• Exploring students' reaction to teachers' feedback • How the reaction affects the evolution of students' perceptions of overall text quality and composing processes • Differences between FL and ESL students' self-editing patterns and their responses to feedback	• Quantitative analysis of a 45item survey administered to 247 L2 writers full semester • Student questionnaire elicited responses to a range of feedback conventions and intervention practices employed by their instructors • 79 FL students & 110 ESL students enrolled in non-native sections of first- and second-semester freshman composition	• Quantitative data based on analysis of an in-depth survey showed students' perceptions towards their teachers' feedback approaches used in their papers • Both the FL and ESL groups showed generally favourable views toward teacher response • Mixed findings suggest that teachers should look beyond the students' written text to explore the perceptions influence the mediational processes of students' self-editing
Lee (1997)	• Exploring students' responses to explicitness of feedback approaches • Tertiary ESL students' preferences for: ▪ Marked ▪ Slightly marked ▪ No marked • Students' performance of self-editing based different feedback approaches	• 149 first-year Electrical Engineering students (degree course) • Full semester • Students' test papers with different feedback approaches: 1) direct prompting, 2) coding, 3) no feedback • Students were asked to choose an appropriate grammatical term from a list provided to describe the error	• Indirect coding is more helpful • Some errors may deserve more attention than others • Students' have limited understanding of teachers' coding
Lee (2004)	• Exploring nature of existing error correction practice from teachers' and students' perspectives • Secondary EFL students' preferences for: ▪ direct vs. indirect ▪ use of error codes • Effectiveness of corrective feedback • Selective vs. comprehensive corrective feedback	• 320 secondary school students (Grades 7–11) from 8 different schools in Hong Kong • 206 secondary school teachers in 4 different teacher training programs • 206 teacher questionnaires • 19 teacher interviews • 58 error correction task papers • 320 student questionnaires • 27 randomly chosen students	• Error coding ineffective at essay level: time consuming & discouraging • Teachers need more training and practice (inaccurate, accurate, unnecessary)

Lee (2008)	• Exploring the reactions of students in two Hong Kong secondary classrooms to their teachers' feedback, focusing particularly on the affective factors • characteristics of teacher feedback and the instructional context • Possible factors that might have influenced student reactions to teacher feedback	• Student data from questionnaires, checklists and protocols (58students) • classroom observations and feedback analysis (2 teachers) • two secondary classrooms in Hong Kong state schools • over 9 months (during entire school year) • quantitative and qualitative analysis	• The students of lower proficiency were less interested in error feedback than those of higher proficiency • Students did not understand all of the teacher feedback due to its illegibility • Teacher-centred feedback makes students dependent on teachers' feedback
Lee (2011)	• The need of a feedback reformation • The issue of teacher readiness • Teachers' perceptions of the affective factors inhibiting change in their conventional feedback approaches • complexities and challenges involved in reforming the current feedback approaches	• 48 EFL teachers and practitioners from all three bandings of secondary schools in Hong Kong • Both quantitative and qualitative data collected from teachers' questionnaire • 10 feedback practices samples (e.g. feedback samples, assessment principles, teachers' shared experiences)	• Teachers showed their awareness of the need for a feedback revolution • There are contextual obstacles for bringing innovation to their feedback approaches • Highlights a need for more research on how they cope with such challenges during the change process
Van Beuningen, De Jong and Kuiken (2012)	• The effect of direct and indirect comprehensive feedback on L2 learners • Teachers' feedback as an assisting tool for L2 students' writing improvement • The role of feedback in relation to long-term accuracy development • The value of comprehensive feedback for different error types	• multilingual students aged (14-15) (80% Moroccan Arabic, Turkish, Surinamese, etc.) from Dutch secondary schools • 6 classes of students in second year of higher general secondary education • 7 classes in their second year of secondary prevocational education • 4different condition groups (2 experimental treatments and 2 control conditions) • Statistical analyses of students' writing performances based on class observations	• Both direct and indirect approaches were helpful for improvement in L2 students' writing accuracy • Direct approach was helpful for the students' grammatical accuracy • Non-grammatical accuracy was improved by indirect approach • Comprehensive feedback is an effective tool for improving L2 students' writing accuracy

Ferris (2002) supports the benefits of indirect feedback claiming that the students get greater opportunities for reflection on linguistic forms and led to their engagement in the self-editing process, which may in turn have promoted greater linguistic accuracy. Also, in Ferris and Roberts (2001), they investigated university ESL students' text revisions in response to two different types of indirect feedback, coding and underlining, focusing on only linguistic errors (e.g. verb tense, noun endings, articles, word choice) during a four-stage cycle (pre-test, writing, feedback, editing). With a control group that received no error correction, they examined students' editing performance in relation to the different level of explicitness of feedback approaches (locating and coding). First, the study indicated that the students who received either type of feedback produced significantly better revised work than those who did not receive feedback. Second, comparing the students' initial grammar test scores (conducted prior to the course) to their in-class revision samples, it asserted that coding was more beneficial than the locating (underlining only) for the low proficiency students. Although the study claims that teachers' corrective feedback is helpful for students' self-editing performance, regardless of the explicitness of the approaches, it does not present sufficient evidence about statistical procedures used to analyse the data sets: i) the first concerns the measurement of error counts in students' handwritten essays and categorization of them. In assessing the relationships between students' prior knowledge of the grammatical terms and their success on self-editing, the statistical ratio of the five categorized grammar errors is not sufficient to demonstrate the impact of teacher's feedback on student uptake. The measurement of assessment was not clearly reported as there was no explanation of how all the instances of the errors in students' papers were merged or disassembled into the five categories in a consistent manner. ii) As the study claims, indirect feedback (underlining the errors in students' written papers) could lead to long-term improvements in students' grammatical accuracy by prompting students' engagement in their revision work. However, measuring students' accuracy was only based on their self-editing performance undertaken within 20 minutes and the claim was formulated extensively based on the students being given time for self-revision in the classroom. The students' actual performance and the process of measurement of the students' uptake need to be explained precisely. Students' uptake should be measured with a systematic tool over

a longer period. The statistical data showing the percentage of uptake in the students' texts was used merely to compare the higher ratios amongst the error categories.

Teachers' feedback included more complex errors based on learners' individual experiences. It is doubtful whether the results would be the same in the context of this study, in which the students' revisions are made outside the classroom. For instance, in-class self-correction based on teachers' corrective feedback cannot be regarded as evidence of students' uptake. It can be considered a form of rewriting their previous draft after noticing the errors they had made. It is not certain how the students would perform over a longer period of time. In brief, the literature review reveals there to have been significant methodological limitations in terms of how such measurements have been conducted.

Another study to be reviewed here with regard to the explicitness of teachers' corrective feedback approaches is that of Chandler (2003) which consists of two studies. The first study was conducted to investigate the students' improvement in both accuracy and the fluency of subsequent writing and their preferences for the different types of teacher feedback approaches. The latter investigated further on how explicitly corrective feedback should be provided to encourage students to self- editing for their written work after teachers' feedback provision. The study provided mixed results on four different feedback approaches (direct correction, underlining and description, description, underlining), investigating probable relationship between students' performance and their preferences in terms of the different feedback approaches over a period of 14 weeks.

The study measurements include changes in the accuracy and fluency of students' writing and student responses towards the feedback they receive based on an initial student questionnaire and documentary analysis of errors in students' writing. First, the teachers underlined grammatical and lexical errors in students' written papers and accuracy uptake was calculated error rate on a series of writing tasks. Also, the student fluency uptake was measured by the amount of time that students spent producing each text. For instance, every student was asked to keep a record of the total amount of time based on the data collection schedule, and it was then calculated per 100 words.

The study results are rather suggestive than conclusive; direct and indirect approaches have their own strengths and weaknesses depending on the goals and purposes of the feedback. In terms of noticing error types, the direct and underlining approaches were most helpful in producing accurate revisions whereas the students preferred the direct approach as it is the easiest and the fastest means of correct their errors. This study has specified in detail how the level of feedback explicitness need to be adjusted in relation to contextual factors (e.g. goals of the course, course period). In the study, the students' and the teachers' perceptions about the different approaches were not in agreement. They perceived benefits of the diverse feedback approaches differently. For teachers, the locating indirect approach was perceived to be more efficient. In contrast, the students preferred direct feedback as it is quicker and easier for them to self-edit the errors in the written work although they thought they could learn more from self-correction (Chandler, 2003)

However, although the study provides an understanding of how university ESL intermediate students perceived the teachers' feedback approaches in general, there is no detailed discussion concerning the students' preferences for different levels of feedback explicitness. This study has similar shortcomings in terms of methodological design as in the study discussed earlier (Ferris, 2002; Ferris & Robert, 2001). First, there was no in-depth explanation of how they converted complex linguistic errors and their correction rate into effects on accuracy simple statistical numbers seems to miss essential points. For example, the measure of accuracy and fluency for uptake in learning writing may not be calculated simply by the numbers of errors and the amount of time spent on writing due to the complexity of L2 learning (Spada & Lightbown, 2008). Based on such measurement, the study claims that the faster a student finishes writing assignment, the more fluent writers they could be. Also, arguably, the validity of collected data such as students' time recording methods was not sufficiently discussed apart from showing the statistical data regarding numbers of errors within 100 word-limit. Lastly, the second study of Chandler (2003) was designed to compare the students' perceptions of the four different approaches in teachers' feedback, but the researcher focused a great extent on students' uptake, as indicated by simply counting the numbers as differences between the initial draft and the two subsequent drafts. Also, how each task was chosen and how the entire tasks constructed were not explained sufficiently. Measuring the overall improvement in accuracy and fluency over a few

weeks, the difference between the numbers of errors made in each draft cannot be sufficient to be used for evidence of measurable effects.

…The fastest way for teachers to respond to student errors on one draft, not surprisingly, is simply to underline them (see Table 11). Correction is the second fastest way. It took the teacher an average of 0.8 min per 100 words for Underlining, whereas Correction required 0.9 min per 100 words, and both Underlining with Description and Description alone took 1.0 min per 100 words…

Table 11

Table 11
Teacher's response time

Teacher's response	Mean time per 100 words (min)
Correction	0.9
Underlining and Description	1.0
Description	1.0
Underlining	0.8

Figure 3.3 Measurement of efficiency of different approaches in Chandler (2003)

Figure 3.3 shows an example of measuring the efficiency of teachers' different feedback approaches based on their response time in correcting students' errors. The methods of measurement and evidence for elicitation in the study were simply discussed by counting and estimating statistically based on the limited conditions. To ensure the validity of the results from the literature, there is a need for longitudinal study of the problems faced by L2 students and teachers to establish what constitutes helpful feedback within a given context. Identifying the specificities of different students and different contexts is crucial in the study of teachers' feedback approaches in L2 writing, as there are differences between ESL/EFL student groups as well as complexities in terms of the content of and approaches to teachers' corrective feedback (Ferris, 2002, 2006, 2011; Hyland, F., 1998, 2000; Hyland & Hyland, 2006).

Another study that investigated the need to consider the effect of corrective feedback approaches was that of Van Beuningen et al. (2012). This experimental study raised several questions investigating the overall effectiveness of different levels of explicitness (i.e. direct vs. indirect approaches) in comprehensive (unfocused) feedback provided in response to L2 students' different error types in the Dutch secondary school context. The study included two experimental treatments, as well as two control groups. All the students were given four tests during four different sessions,

including a pre-test, a treatment session, a post-test and a delayed post-test. The research aimed to provide information concerning the effects of direct and indirect comprehensive feedback on L2 learners' improvement in accuracy of language use and the role of feedback in relation to long-term accuracy development. The findings of the study were that both indirect and direct feedback approaches were effective for improving the L2 students' writing in terms of grammatical and other accuracy, but only the direct approach had a positive effect on improving student's grammatical accuracy.

The research provided detailed statistical analyses on the differential effects between feedback approaches and error types (i.e. grammatical vs. non-grammatical errors) and a clear evidence in favour of the helpfulness of comprehensive feedback. Moreover, they emphasized the importance of teachers' awareness of tailored approaches in feedback provision, pointing out that different errors require different feedback approaches. However, although their study shed light on the distinctive benefits of teachers' adjustment in levels of explicitness of comprehensive feedback, they did not completely address issues regarding the control group receiving focused feedback. Also, it can be argued that they did not state clearly the concept of comprehensive feedback approaches and the range and the measures of grammatical accuracy reported in their study were both vague and limited to only narrow categories of grammatical errors (i.e. the use of articles, structural complexity, lexical diversity). Moreover, there is the highly important issue of the reliability of measurement. Their study was able to measure the students' uptake after feedback provision accurately through their revision abilities, but not by their performance in producing an error-reduced text in a new draft. To clarify the validity of the evidence regarding error rates, there needs to be an extensive discussion concerning how revised errors and newly occurring errors were treated.

3.6.3 Grammar- vs. content-focused feedback

Teachers may rely on their beliefs and experience and such a distinction requires dynamic judgment (Borg, 1998; Breen et al., 2001; Clark & Peterson, 1986; Lortie, 1975). The majority of previous studies on L2 learners' perceptions of teachers' corrective feedback have discussed the benefits for students' improvement in L2 writing. Only a few studies have specified in detail what type of errors the teachers

focus their feedback on, and how the students' perceptions are coordinated with their teachers' feedback approaches and why a particular approach was chosen. The aspect(s) on which teachers focus (e.g. grammar, ideas, content, etc.) in error correction is important, but despite the importance of a primary focus in teachers' error correction, there has been little research on 'what needs to be selected for correction'. Considering that L2 students have difficulties with both linguistic and the rhetorical features of L2 writing (Diab, 2005, p. 34), students' needs, and particular expectations are crucial factors which influence which kind of feedback works best. Such aspects of corrective feedback have led some researchers to investigate L2 students' responses towards teachers' selection of errors in students' written text such as form-focused or content-focused feedback.

In terms of students' perceptions about teachers' feedback focus (e.g. content, organization, style, grammatical accuracy, or word choice), Hedgcock and Lefkowitz (1994) investigated 247 tertiary beginner EFL (N=137) and ESL (N=110) students' preferences for receiving feedback on certain writing aspects over a full semester. All students had received corrective feedback twice on at least one writing assignment. Quantitative data were gathered through a survey exploring both ESL students' and EFL (with the majority of French, Spanish, and German speakers) students' responses to their teachers' feedback focus: content, organization, style, lexical sophistication and grammatical and mechanical accuracy. The students were asked to reflect on how helpful their teachers' feedback was. By asking them a series of open-ended questions in the survey, students' perceptions about focal areas of error correction and how helpful they found the selected feedback approaches at different stages of essay writing (e.g. first drafting, and final drafting) were explored. Quantitative data based on analysis of an in-depth survey showed students' perceptions towards their teachers' feedback approaches used in their papers: i) both the FL and ESL groups showed generally favourable views toward teacher response, and ii) the EFL tertiary level students valued teacher feedback and preferred correction of grammatical and lexical errors to those of content and style, while the ESL students showed the opposite. Such mixed findings elicited that teachers should look beyond the students' written text to explore the possible factors that might have influenced the mediational processes of students' self-editing. Their findings showed not only different perceptions of the two groups, but also a need to draw an attention to contextual differences between ESL and

EFL students as the purpose of learning separates ESL students from EFL students. In other words, ESL students need to learn writing for academic purpose whereas in an EFL setting, it is not considered 'core element of the curriculum' (Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994, p. 143).

As shown in Hedgcock and Lefkowitz (1994), the studies on the teachers' feedback approaches placed an emphasis on the influence of focal area of teacher feedback as it affects students' attitudes about their revision in a subsequent writing, emphasizing student factors and contextual factors (e.g. FL learners vs. L2 learners, purpose of learning writing, etc.). It also provides insights into how form-focused or content-focused feedback was perceived by the different student groups, which ultimately affected the students' beliefs towards teacher instruction and possible improvement in learning writing (pp.141–142). However, although this study has provided an in-depth understanding of the factors affecting the students' responses towards the teachers' feedback, it has certain reliability issues in its methodological design. The data collected in the study depends mainly on the students' reported responses. Also, rather than paying the differential attention to specific text features and to differences between the two groups, the analysis focuses on serving to describe the patterns of behaviours between the two groups. Considering that the feedback process occurs collaboratively between teachers and students, the analytical methodology used in the study was limited to statistically interpreting the data from students' reports only. In an effort to enhance the reliability of the findings and conclusions concerning the questions, future studies must consider probable factors affecting the results in such contexts (e.g. the diversity of student populations and the complexity of measuring actual writing performances).

A similar study was conducted in Montgomery and Baker (2007). They investigated the nature of L2 teachers' written feedback and how their self-assessments and students' perceptions of this feedback coordinate in a university intensive ESL programme for a semester. Comparing both students' and teachers' questionnaires to the nature of teachers' actual feedback in students' essay drafts, they asserted that there was an agreement in teachers' perceptions and students' perceptions of teacher-written feedback. The study suggested a general understanding of how ESL teachers' reported perceptions about their corrective feedback approach in relation to their students'

responses confirming that: i) students were satisfied with the amount of feedback given in each of the areas; ii) teachers give more feedback on grammatical errors (local errors) than they believed they were giving; iii) teachers give very little feedback on content errors (global errors).

However, it is important to understand the tendency that L2 students continue to make grammatical errors repetitively (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). What they investigated was concerned considerably with grammatical errors (global errors) emphasizing only the amount of feedback given. Also, there was a methodological problem in estimating the total amount of feedback given on students' compositions on a Likert scale with choices of 'none,' 'a little,' 'some,' and 'a lot' and using the results as an indication of students' perceptions. This is a somewhat subjective approach and leads to overgeneralization in statistical presentations. The data measured for in relation to students' and teachers' perceptions served more as statistical quantities than as detailed descriptions of perceptions. Moreover, in terms of reliability of measurement in the study, they compared the quantity of actual feedback with the scores given instead of conducting thorough investigation of actual feedback given. Finally, it is necessary to explain precisely the frequency counts for each of the content categories were translated into a similar Likert scale and how the scores were compared to the responses given.

3.6.4 Corrective feedback practice in Asian secondary school contexts

However, it can be explained that the types of feedback EFL secondary students prefer to receive seem to differ. Drawing on Hyland and Hyland (2006), there are critical issues beyond the feedback itself related to the context and participants of the research. Highlighting that the findings from various studies so far remain controversial and inconclusive, the study emphasizes the importance of context as a critical factor in interpreting the formulation of certain feedback approaches. Unfortunately, despite the educational reforms and the trend of *English Fever* in South Korea (c.f. 2.2.1), there have been very few studies investigating the Korean EFL secondary school students' perceptions until recently, particularly in the private language school context. Due to the lack of existing research regarding teachers' corrective feedback in the Korean secondary school context (c.f. 2.2.3), I will review and discuss research undertaken in a similar context, namely those undertaken by Lee (1997, 2004) in Hong Kong. Lee

(2004)'s context and participants exhibits some common characteristics with those of this study, albeit not exactly identical. I am personally interested in Lee's (2004) study because it differs from the other studies discussed earlier in that secondary EFL students' and their teachers' perceptions were investigated and compared within a single study. Also, the study focused on the factors that influence both teachers' beliefs and student perceptions about their teachers' feedback approaches.

Previously, Lee (1997) investigated tertiary Chinese EFL students' performance in self-editing when teachers used indirect feedback on students' written work. Investigating 49 Chinese university students with mixed proficiencies in Hong Kong, the study explored the impact of direct versus indirect feedback approaches on students' three error correction tests. These tests were marked, and the results were subjected to statistical analysis. In terms of gains in accuracy and the long-term retention of linguistic elements, the analyses of student self-editing tests confirmed that indirect corrective feedback was more beneficial. However, in the tasks, low proficiency students showed less engagement in self-editing due to their inability to understand the unfamiliar grammatical terms used in teachers' indirect coding. The major insight of the study was that students had difficulty in detecting errors in their written work rather than a lack of linguistic knowledge. Also, the study highlighted the importance of teachers' dynamic adjustment of feedback approaches in response to students' performance in self-editing. However, in Lee's (2004), she asserted the contradictory result in students' responses to explicitness in the feedback approaches. In the study, she shifted the focus of the investigation to secondary school students in Hong Kong. She examined Chinese secondary school students' perceptions of Chinese state school teachers' form-focused feedback as well as teachers' perceptions of their approaches of feedback and actual classroom practices. Analysing 58 of the 206 participating teachers' error correction samples and interviews with them, the results showed that the teachers preferred a comprehensive direct feedback approach, and it was aligned with the students' survey reporting their needs that their teachers should mark all the errors in their texts. Considering that the instructional methods are teacher-centred in many Asian EFL contexts (Leki, 1991, 2006; Lee, 2004, 2008; Saito, 1994), it seems that greater responsibility is put on the teachers' approaches in the feedback process in such contexts (Lee, 1997; 2004; 2008). In brief, young EFL students rely excessively on teachers' error correction of their written work. Considering the complexity of the

errors made by young EFL students, the study highlights the considerable effort required of teachers in making dynamic use of the diverse approaches to feedback in response to individual students' needs. Continuing her study in investigation of perceptions of corrective feedback, Lee (2008) further explored: i) how secondary school teachers in Hong Kong marked their students' writing, ii) whether their approaches were consistent with the guidelines in the curriculum and iii) how the students perceived the teachers' approaches to feedback focusing on possible affective factors that influenced the participants' perceptions and actual practice. Actual feedback samples were collected, comprising 174 student drafts. According to the analyses of student checklists and protocols, there were discrepancies between the actual practice of teachers' feedback provision and the recommended scheme. In contrast to what the school curriculum guidelines suggested, the teachers focused mainly on form and provided feedback on only one draft.

Also, one plausible factor affected students' perception was that they did not understand all of the teacher feedback to its illegibility. This study suggested that in the Hong Kong secondary school context, teachers' feedback is mostly teacher-centred, and therefore, students become passive and dependent on teachers' feedback, which asserts that it is important for teachers to be aware of the impact of their feedback approaches and monitor the student responses. The study reported a few issues identified through the teacher interviews; several critical factors that influenced the teachers' actual approaches were identified. The first factor was due to accountability. The teachers did not apply what they believed to be beneficial for the students because they considered that they were accountable to the school administrators, parents and students and thus focused on results. Second, the teachers' beliefs concerning the principles of writing instruction influenced their practices. Linked to the first point, was the exam-dominated institutional culture. Teachers in Asian EFL writing contexts often focus their feedback on what will constitute a better score in a test. Finally, there was a lack of knowledge concerning feedback provision, suggesting a need for teacher training on how to give feedback.

Reflecting on the findings from past studies (Lee, 1997, 2004, 2008) on teachers' conventional feedback approaches, Lee (2011) claims that there is a need for more research on how teachers make efforts to bring innovation to their feedback approaches,

specifically in the secondary context, as well as how they should handle contextual challenges. She investigated secondary school EFL teachers' feedback approaches and the impact on teachers' professional work and development. Her study indicated the importance of 'teacher readiness' and teachers' perceptions of the factors affecting the implementation of changes in their feedback approaches (p. 3). Both quantitative and qualitative data drawn from teacher interviews and questionnaires revealed practical constraints and challenges involved in reforming current feedback approaches (i.e. class size, heavy workload, tight teaching schedules). The study noted that there is a contrast between 'what they can do' and 'what they think they should do'; thus, teacher empowerment through a supportive working environment is imperative to ensure the optimal benefits of teachers' corrective feedback, as well as better learning outcomes.

Despite the meaningful insights into the teacher-centred Asian secondary school context, these studies (Lee, 2004, 2008, 2011) had some limitations in terms of methodological design and the authenticity of the data analysed in the study. Unlike other studies mentioned earlier, Lee (2008) places considerable importance on teachers' responsibility in the corrective feedback process, although it is considered to be formed through a collaborative effort between students and teachers in a particular context. Also, Lee's (2004) study was based on the use of convenience sampling; for example, in selecting error types for the investigation of gains of accuracy, 19 errors were identified in the diverse student essay papers (c.f. Table 3 in Lee, 2004, p. 292) and reduced to 4 error types (c.f. Table 4 in Lee, 2004, p. 293). However, the selection criteria and methods used for analysis were not clearly reported in the study. Moreover, there was no detailed explanation of how such errors were corrected by the participating teachers; hence, the results cannot be generalized. Finally, information concerning the strategies used by teachers in error correction and the accuracy of their corrections was gathered from a single task in a secondary school teacher English language education programme at one of the four participating universities. This was an artificial error correction exercise based on an essay not written by the teachers' own students. The ways in which the teachers marked errors in the essays might have deviated from their normal practice (i.e. student progress in written accuracy), based on teachers' reports and students' self-reports rather than analysis of students' writing samples.

3.6.5 Students' engagement in corrective feedback process

As shown in 3.6.4 and based on my professional experience working with Korean EFL students, young novice students' interest in their teachers' corrective feedback was low. Most secondary school students in Korean private language schools were occupied with other lessons with excessive workloads. The majority of the students were reluctant to revise their drafts and did not want to spend time reading the feedback provided by their teachers. It can be argued that asking students simply to copy their teachers' feedback into a new draft is a passive way of teaching and does not create an environment for autonomous learning (c.f. Lee, 2004, 2008). This is one of the most significant reasons why students are greatly reliant on their teachers' feedback in this context. If this problem is not resolved, students will not be able to write independently without the teachers' assistance. It has been suggested that teachers' corrective feedback needs to prompt students' engagement in learning and guide them to recognize or correct errors on their own (Conrad & Goldstein, 1999; Ferris, 2006, 2011; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010; Tardy, 2006).

For low-motivated students, effective feedback needs to prompt students to become engaged in their own learning (Ferris, 2006, 2011; Tardy, 2006). To facilitate learner engagement in L2 writing, teachers need to seek ways to tailor feedback approaches to the individual learner's developmental level (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994) as goal-oriented corrective feedback can help learners become self-regulated in dealing with targeted tasks independently. Furthermore, it is also important for students to become confident in using the feedback. Through practice in the process of corrective feedback, students are expected to be able to perform independently on a new draft.

The next issue concerns the appropriate degree of mediation between students and teachers in the feedback process. There needs to be mutual understanding between the teacher and the student; this needs to be monitored to ensure the feedback is optimal in terms of facilitating the students' development. In the L2 classroom, the teachers provide feedback on how students' can improve their written work and students will often to follow teachers' suggestions without question due to the hierarchical nature of the teacher–student relationship (Tardy, 2006, p. 61). Tardy (2006) claims that students should be encouraged to retain their critical voice within the text and use different strategies (e.g. adopting, stylizing, transforming) for negotiating and revising their

texts. However, this may not occur due to EFL students' lack of content knowledge and the power differential in the EFL classroom setting.

Indeed, in current feedback practices in Korean EFL writing classrooms, the students tend to simply copy their teachers' direct error corrections or follow their suggestions without question due to the misconception that their teachers know everything, and they will be able to write better if they keep getting feedback over time. Teachers need to consider ways in which they can transform their learners' passive attitudes to more active and productive ways of learning (Conrad & Goldstein, 1999; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010; Tardy, 2006). Recognizing that simply receiving teacher feedback will not help students learn and improve their writing, it is necessary to strengthen learners' engagement and help them build a sense of ownership over their texts.

3.6.6. Teachers' beliefs, perceptions and practices

The central focus of this study is to explore the nature and extent of Korean EFL secondary school teachers' stated beliefs of written corrective feedback in their classrooms. Therefore, in this study, it is essential to consider what is believed, how this is implemented and why. It is also necessary to review the students' perceptions on teachers' diverse corrective feedback approaches to outline the details of the relationship between them. However, the literature on teachers' perceived feedback approaches and their actual approaches is limited. Most educational research on teachers' perceptions of their approaches has been discussed within the themes of teachers' beliefs and practice (e.g. Borg, 1998, 1999; Breen et al., 2001; Pajares, 1992) and teachers' cognition and their educational experiences (e.g. Borg, 2003). Also, teachers' beliefs have often been investigated in pre-service or in-service contexts (Borg, 2011) and the literature has focused on what teachers do if their learning experiences have direct impacts on their beliefs (Borg, 2003). The attention to this may be due to the fact that qualitative factors, such as teachers' belief systems and self-concept, play a more important role than their educational knowledge and principles in classroom practice (e.g. Borg, 2001; Breen et al., 2001). The motivation for research into teachers' beliefs may be due to awareness that the various realities in classrooms cannot be explained by simply studying teachers' approaches.

However, in terms of the precision of concepts, beliefs and perceptions are not identical. Pajares (1992) defined beliefs 'as a messy construct, and one difficult to disentangle from similar concepts which can be overlapped with close psychological terms such as teachers' criteria, principles of practice, perspectives and personal knowledge' (p. 309). However, despite claims that beliefs certainly influence teachers' thought processes, beliefs represent a 'dispositional state of mind' that remains static and unchanged in a teacher's mind' (Smith, 2001, pp. 283–284); in contrast, perceptions are described as 'acquirings of beliefs' as 'belief cannot be held prior to its acquisition' (pp. 285–288). Thus, in that perceptions can be formed without beliefs, this study does not regard beliefs as perceptions because one's beliefs do not necessarily equal the perception of the state of an object (Smith, 2001). As beliefs are a major influencing factor in many areas of education (Borg, 2003), in this study they are considered to be among the factors that may influence the formation of teachers' perceptions, framing the concept of effective teaching. This is because beliefs in themselves cannot represent all the components associated with teachers' perceptions in the feedback provision context. This section reviews only the selected literature (e.g. Borg, 1998, 2001, 2003; Breen et al., 2001) that relates to the research focus, considering the important role of affective factors in shaping actual feedback practices in correspondence with individual teachers' pedagogical perceptions.

Beliefs are a major influencing factor in a range of areas in teacher's pedagogical practice (Borg, 2003). According to the literature, teachers' cognition can be defined as the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching, which involves what teachers know, believe and think. With an emphasis on the dynamic nature of teachers' beliefs, Borg (2001) sheds light on the relationship between teachers' cognitive development and their learning experience. Borg (2001) conducted a qualitative longitudinal study investigating in-service teachers' beliefs and their instructional practices in the UK, employing semi-structured interviews and document analysis (i.e. coursework and tutor feedback) regarding the beliefs of six English language teachers (pp. 378–379). The findings of the study revealed that the teachers' learning experience had a considerable impact on their beliefs, particularly in the case of in-service teachers in training contexts. The literature presented comprised an analysis of the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their own learning experience, but did not consider other factors that might influence teachers' beliefs and practices as the focus was only on

addressing the complexities involved in terms of teachers' beliefs and experience in their feedback provision. The implications of these findings are that there is a need for more effective research designs and methods to obtain a wider range of evidence concerning the complexities of teachers' perceptions (i.e. pedagogic beliefs, knowledge, assumptions, attitudes, preferences, etc.) regarding teachers' beliefs about their feedback approaches (Borg, 1998, 1999; Breen et al., 2001; Hyland & Hyland, 2006; Lee, 2006; Pajares, 1992).

Another study on teachers' beliefs and practices claimed that 'teachers hold many beliefs that come primarily from their previous experiences and they tend to identify with theories that align with their experiences' (Breen et al., 2001, p. 3). This study investigated the classroom practices of a group of 18 language teachers, focusing on whether teachers' perceptions and behaviours in the classroom were influenced by their beliefs, including their pedagogical principles. Employing video recordings of lessons of 18 ESL teachers, teacher interviews, repertory grids and critical incident reports, the study outlined the teachers' particular reasons for the matching approaches. The findings revealed that teachers' previous teaching experiences could influence their approaches. According to the findings, teachers' classroom practices were constructed based on two factors. The first was related to specific contextual factors. The study showed that the relationship between teachers' personal pedagogic principles and differing practices differed depending on institutional curricula and assessment reporting requirements. Highlighting the diversity of teachers' beliefs, it can be noted that most teachers apply their own judgments concerning teaching methods in their classrooms, either consciously or subconsciously. This is because teachers hold varying beliefs on the same issue, and they tend to practise their beliefs in their classrooms. The results of this study support the findings of Borg's (2001) research. Both this study and Borg's (2001) work emphasize the need to understand the beliefs teachers hold, as these influence classroom practice. One question that arises from such research is whether this can be explained strictly in terms of cause and effect related to beliefs and practices. The literature based on sample of 18 teachers from different school settings was limited to explaining the subtleties related to personal and contextual factors. The study results, covering an analysis of data obtained over only for five weeks, could not sufficiently represent teachers' classroom practices, as every teacher operates in a particular classroom setting with a particular group of students.

Also, no significant patterns were observed between the impacts of perceptions and beliefs, despite the author's claims that teachers' perceptual beliefs have a significant impact on their actions. The factors compared in this regard that affect teachers' actual practice have been limited to teachers' instructional principles, excluding several other variables. The implications in terms of research design and research questions are that it is essential to obtain evidence concerning teachers' perceptions of written feedback approaches in relation to various contextual factors of influence (e.g. the age of the students, the teacher's individual background or language background and the actual settings of teaching).

Capturing the complex relationships between teachers' instructional approaches and their impact remains a demanding task, although the findings of empirical investigations suggest that the teachers were influenced by different pedagogical principles shaped by their personal experiences. Specifically, without understanding other related components (e.g. student and contextual factors), solely outlining the relationship between teachers' cognitive and pedagogical patterns may miss the procedural complexities embedded in teachers' adoption of particular approaches. This is because how teachers' perceptions are operationalized and their impact on teachers' actions are highly individualized and context-dependent and are often unpredictable (Borg, 1998, 2001, 2003; Breen et al., 2001; Smith, 2001). Bearing the above in mind, the central focus of this study was to investigate teachers' stated beliefs concerning their own feedback approaches to EFL students' written work, the findings of which are discussed in Chapter 5.

3.7 Summary

This chapter has outlined the focus and design of this research study. It provides an overview of the literature, developing the theoretical framework that is used for the study in terms of several key concepts. It posits that Korean EFL secondary school students can benefit from teachers' corrective feedback and that the use of specific feedback approaches may be closely related to students' perceptions of written corrective feedback, particularly highlighting the role of student factors and contextual factors in a private language school setting.

The discussion began with sociocultural theory and its central concepts (ZPD and scaffolding), embedded in the theory of second language writing acquisition. With regard to the Vygotskian concept of 'negotiation of feedback' (Vygotsky, 1978), the interpersonal and intrapersonal aspects of corrective feedback provision in L2 writing were discussed. This was followed by a review of selected empirical studies on the nature of teachers' corrective feedback approaches, discussed using the typology adopted from Ellis (2009, p. 98). The main themes in the discussion of the empirical studies concerned EFL/ESL teachers' and students' perceptions of different feedback approaches: explicitness of feedback approaches (c.f. Chandler, 2003; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Lee, 2004) and focus of feedback areas (form- vs. content-focused) (c.f. Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994; Montgomery & Baker 2007). Then, an in-depth discussion was provided concerning the literature (c.f. Lee, 1997, 2004, 2008), particularly, on secondary school L2 students' and their teachers' perceptions of corrective feedback in an Asian ESL/EFL context.

The discussion highlights the fact that few L2 studies have explored the nature and extent of written corrective feedback in Korean EFL secondary school contexts, despite the main purpose of teachers' corrective feedback being to promote novice learners' writing skills, as well as their engagement in self-editing. This provides a rationale for the current study and the critique of previous research draws attention to role of specific sociocultural backgrounds and the teachers' pedagogical approaches in the Korean EFL secondary school context. After reviewing the pedagogical and sociocultural background of young Asian students, issues concerning students' passivity in the context and factors influencing students' low engagement in learning were discussed. The discussion ended with a review of selected educational research on teachers' beliefs and actual feedback approaches within the themes of teachers' beliefs, perceptions and practice (e.g. Borg, 1998, 1999; Breen et al., 2001; Pajares, 1992) and teachers' cognition and their educational experiences (e.g. Borg, 2003). This highlights the need for a better understanding of the complexities embedded in the stated beliefs of teachers concerning written corrective feedback and their adoption of such approaches in Korean EFL writing classrooms.

Chapter 4: Methodology

This chapter explains the research methodology of this dissertation. First of all, I present a brief overview of the research methodology in 4.1, followed by the philosophical position in 4.2. Then, I address the background and research questions in 4.3, the methodological framework in 4.4 and the research design in 4.5. Section 4.6 presents the data collection methods and procedures. The approach to data analysis is presented in section 4.7, followed by the trustworthiness and ethical issues in 4.8.

4.1 Overview of the chapter

This chapter presents the methodology employed in the study, which investigated: i) the stated beliefs of Korean EFL secondary school teachers with regard to written corrective feedback; ii) Korean EFL secondary school teachers' perceptions concerning their written corrective feedback; iii) Korean EFL secondary students' perceptions concerning their teachers' written corrective feedback; iv) on the basis of two teacher participants, the nature of the teachers' actual corrective feedback practices implemented in their writing classes. The study is based on the assumption that Korean EFL secondary school students can benefit from teachers' corrective feedback in their learning and development (Ellis, 2009; Ferris, 2003; Hyland & Hyland 2006; Lee, 2003, 2004) when their teachers pay attention to appropriate means of promoting students' writing development. However, in the current pedagogical context in Korea, certain problems have been noted in terms of teachers' written corrective feedback, namely that: i) Korean EFL secondary students have little confidence when they are asked to write in English due to their lack of writing experience and inadequate linguistic knowledge; ii) Korean EFL teachers in *hagwons* (private language schools) tend to have concerns about their own English writing ability and feedback approaches when correcting the errors in students' written work.

To conduct the study, I adopted a 'mixed methods' approach (Creswell, 2003; Creswell & Tashakkori, 2007; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Morse, 2003; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998, 2003) as the literature suggests that combining quantitative and qualitative elements is beneficial in presenting different aspects of complex reality

involving participants' beliefs and perceptions as well as factors that may affect these perceptions. It was to provide a better understanding of how the teachers' beliefs were shaped and what influenced the formulation of their perceptions of feedback approaches as well as a wide range of interpretations in responding to the research questions (Dörnyei, 2007; Creswell & Tashakkori, 2007; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998, 2003).

4.2 Philosophical position

It is important to discuss the philosophical position on which the study design is based (Greene, 2007; Mertens, 2005). Concerning philosophical viewpoints in research, diverse positions and paradigms exist. According to the literature (Guba & Lincoln, 1994), a research 'paradigm is a set of fundamental assumptions and beliefs as to how the world is perceived which then serves as a thinking framework that guides the behaviour of the researcher' (p. 107). In terms of paradigmatic positions, Guba and Lincoln (1994) outlined four major paradigmatic viewpoints: positivism, post-positivism, critical theory and constructivism (see Table 4.1). In the following section, I briefly state the philosophical stance adopted in this study to position the approach paradigmatically. Later, in 4.4, I provide an in-depth discussion of the nature of mixed methods methodology, framing the study within philosophical positions.

Some researchers argue that the realities of phenomena can be perceived differently depending on individual beliefs and experiences in particular social contexts (Creswell, 2003; Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Lincoln et al., 2011; Miles & Huberman, 1994). Diverse paradigms have established a variety of different perspectives and principles for the study of phenomena based on researchers' own philosophical positions. Research paradigms are determined by researchers' orientations in terms of *ontology*, *epistemology* and *methodology*, where ontology refers to the nature of reality, epistemology refers to the relationship between reality and the researcher and methodology refers to the techniques the researcher uses to discover that reality (Carson et al., 2001). A summary of positions is provided in Table 4.1.

Based on Guba and Lincoln's (1994) paradigmatic classification shown in Table 4.1, this study is situated within the 'constructivist' paradigm, consistent with the aim of the study to capture the complexities associated with the characteristics of students' and teachers' perceptions concerning corrective feedback approaches and the possible

relationship between the students' and the teachers' perceptions. Also, bearing in mind that the research questions call for descriptive information on the phenomenon as well as in-depth contextualized understanding, it was considered appropriate to apply diverse methodological approaches. Thus, the study employed both quantitative and qualitative methods, making it possible to gather multiple forms of evidence based on the nature of the research questions.

With regard to employing a mixed methods approach, Rossman and Wilson (1985) mapped three positions, purist, situational and pragmatic: 1) 'purists' argue that paradigms and methods are not compatible and should not be mixed; 2) 'situationists' consider that certain methods can be mixed depending on the specific situations; 3) 'pragmatists' view the dichotomy between qualitative and quantitative research as false and advocate the efficient use of both approaches (p. 629). The philosophical position underpinning this study can be characterized as the third approach. This study employs multiple tools (student questionnaire, teacher interview and documentary analysis) in the research procedures as I adopted a pragmatic position, attempting to identify the complex phenomena embedded in the formulation of the both teachers' and students' perceptions and their possible influence on actual feedback practice in the classroom.

What should be considered important in research is the extent to which the methods used provide the best opportunities for answering the questions raised in the current study. In particular, a student questionnaire was employed to collect the data to explain student perceptions of teachers' feedback approaches, which were analysed quantitatively to address RQ3. Since it was difficult to gain access to the students directly, the study inferred student-related details based upon teachers' reports or students' essay writing samples, which were analysed qualitatively (see 4.7.1 and 4.7.2 for more information).

In this study, the purpose of integrating the diverse data sets was to link the analysis of the student questionnaire with the data collected from the teacher interviews and then to the examination of the teachers' corrective feedback samples. As the inclusion of each form of dataset provides its own contribution in terms of practical and useful outcomes, mixed methods designs arguably contribute to a better understanding of the various phenomena under investigation (Brannen, 1992, 2005; Rossman & Wilson,

1985). As noted in the literature, the main purpose of using mixed methods here was to maximize the strengths and minimize the weaknesses of a single form of data or source. For example, to gather statistical information on students' perceptions of the nature of corrective feedback approaches, quantitative tools can be used to collect the relevant data effectively. In contrast, to provide meaningful, detailed interpretations in relation to the participants and the context, a more critical qualitative approach (e.g. interviews and document analysis) can be used (Brannen, 1992; Rossman & Wilson, 1985).

In essence, for the efficient use of data, the current study utilized both quantitative and qualitative methods founded on pragmatic views, which holds that the realities of phenomena can be perceived differently considering complexities associated with individual beliefs in particular social contexts (Creswell, 2003; Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Lincoln et al., 2011; Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Table 4.1 Basic beliefs regarding research paradigms

Objective ← ---------- → *Subjective*

	Positivism	**Post-positivism**	**Constructivism (Interpretivism)**	**Critical Theory**
Ontology	'Naïve realism' Only one reality exists. Unchangeable laws of nature control the world. Knowledge is independent of time or context.	'Critical realism' Reality can be apprehended, but never perfectly.	'Relativism' Not one, but several truths. The world is ever changing and reality is dependent on time, place and context.	'Historical realism' Knowledge depends on socially and historically determined time.
Epistemology	Objective. Distanced and neutral researcher. No interaction between the researcher and the observed.	Objective, but with an emphasis on a probabilistic evaluation of the result.	Subjective. Knowledge is created through the interaction between the researcher and the subject.	Subjective. Results are value-laden. Knowledge is created through the interaction between the researcher and the subject.
Methodology	Experimental setting. Hypothetico-deductive.	Modified experimental setting. Falsification of hypotheses. Application of qualitative research methods may occur.	Hermeneutical, dialectical and phenomenological.	Hermeneutical and dialectical.
Research aim	Explanation – conclusively, prediction and control	Explanation – conclusively, prediction and control	Understanding and reconstruction.	Critique, emancipation and reformation of social, political, economic and cultural structures.

(Adapted from Guba & Lincoln 1994, pp. 109–112)

4.3 Background and research questions

The study was undertaken in the private language school context in Seoul, South Korea. Focusing on the complexities embedded in Korean EFL secondary school teachers' beliefs of written corrective feedback, the study addressed four main research questions. The first explored the stated beliefs of Korean EFL secondary school teachers with regard to written corrective feedback. The second aimed to examine the teachers' reported perceptions concerning their written corrective feedback, including their principles for different approaches to feedback and difficulties that they experienced in providing written feedback. The third aimed to examine Korean EFL secondary students' reported perceptions concerning their teachers' written corrective feedback. The fourth aimed to investigate related issues in implementing teachers' feedback practices in their writing classes. The specific research questions were as follows:

1. What are the stated beliefs of Korean EFL secondary school teachers with regard to written corrective feedback?
2. What are Korean EFL secondary school teachers' perceptions concerning their written corrective feedback?
3. What are Korean EFL secondary students' perceptions concerning their teachers' written corrective feedback?
4. What corrective feedback practices do Korean EFL teachers implement in their writing classes?

The relationships between the research questions, data sources and modes of analysis are summarized in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Relationship between research questions, data sources and analysis

Research question	Data source(s)	Data analysis
1. What are the stated beliefs of Korean EFL secondary school teachers with regard to written corrective feedback?	Audio-recorded semi-structured interviews with eight teachers	Qualitative analysis – thematic coding
2. What are Korean EFL secondary school teachers' perceptions concerning their written corrective feedback?	Audio-recorded semi-structured interviews with eight teachers	Qualitative analysis – thematic coding
3. What are Korean EFL secondary students' perceptions concerning their teachers' written corrective feedback?	Semi-structured student questionnaire	Descriptive quantitative analysis (Pearson chi-squared analysis of distribution patterns)
4. What corrective feedback practices do Korean EFL teachers implement in their writing classes?	Teachers' corrective feedback samples	Qualitative analysis-Document analysis

4.4 Methodological framework

This section provides an outline of the methodological framework. Mixed methods research has been defined by Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) as follows:

> Mixed methods research is a research design with philosophical assumptions as well as methods of inquiry. As a methodology, it involves philosophical assumptions that guide the direction of the collection and analysis and the mixture of qualitative and quantitative approaches in many phases of the research process. As a method, it focuses on collecting, analysing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or series of studies. Its central premise is that the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches, in combination, provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone. (p. 5)

According to Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009), the term 'mixed methods' refers to a combination of different approaches applied at any stage of the research. The approach is regarded as the 'third methodology', involving research in which both qualitative and quantitative strategies are used (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 7). It is regarded as a new 'research paradigm' and is defined as 'the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts, or language into a single study' (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 17). The main purpose of combining the two different

approaches is to enhance the validity of the conclusions and the 'complementarity' of the data set (Denzin, 1970).

The early definition of mixed methods proposed in other literature (Green et al., 1989) was concerned with the methods themselves, i.e. whether they were designed to collect 'numbers' or 'words' (Green et al., 1989, p. 256). Later, over 40 types of mixed methods research designs were introduced by Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998), referring to a 'methodology' combining qualitative and quantitative approaches. The merits of a mixed methods approach are that it potentially provides a better chance of finding comprehensive in-depth answers to research questions and enhances the findings of research (Greene et al., 1989; Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998, 2003). By avoiding the polarization of the two traditional approaches, Miles and Huberman (1994) emphasized the practical benefits of the mixed methods research:

> …both quantitative and qualitative inquiry can support and inform each other in important ways. Narratives and variable-driven analyses need to interpenetrate and inform each other. Realists, idealists and critical theorists can do better by incorporating other ideas than remaining pure. (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 396)

I selected a mixed methods approach for the following reasons: i) the research questions required both quantitative and qualitative analysis to complement each other in providing (Bryman, 2006; Greene et al., 1989); ii) mixed methods provide the opportunity to maximize the interpretations of the contextual phenomena under investigation by integrating the different forms of datasets (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2004, 2006; Onwuegbuzie & Teddlie, 2003). For the purpose of data analysis, the qualitative and quantitative datasets were integrated to embrace the complex characteristics of the participants' perceptions and the factors affecting them (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007).

However, arguably, one of the most difficult challenges in using mixed methods is how to integrate the different forms of data, thus effectively maximizing the strengths and minimizing the weaknesses of each dataset. According to the 'incompatibility thesis' (Howe, 1988), researchers claim that quantitative and qualitative approaches cannot be mixed due to the differences in the nature of each method. Thus, a systematic framework is needed to link quantitative and qualitative data (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2004, 2006; Onwuegbuzie & Teddlie, 2003). Importantly, when integrating the data

from multiple instruments, the procedures for analysis should be conducted 'logically and sequentially', framing the research within philosophical and theoretical positions. By doing so, mixed methods research can produce fruitful information and meaningful interpretations of the results (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2004, 2006).

Considering the challenges in mixed methods design, Morse (1991) introduced two ways in which quantitative and qualitative methods can be combined: on the one hand, qualitative methods can be used as a preliminary method in a quantitative study; second, quantitative methods can be used as the preliminary method in a qualitative study. This study adopted the former. It mixed the preliminary quantitative instrument (student questionnaires) with the two qualitative data sets (teacher interviews and document samples) although the research employed qualitative analysis as the primary methods.

4.4.1 Triangulation

A particular aspect of this study is the use of *triangulation*, as discussed by Bryman (1988). There have been mixed views regarding the use of triangulation in research. Triangulation can be used to increase the breadth and depth of understanding of diverse phenomena (Bryman, 1988, 2006; Morse, 2003). Moreover, others have asserted that it can be used as a part of the validation procedure when researchers need to form relevant themes by converging information from multiple sources in a study (Creswell & Miller, 2000; Denzin, 1978).

Importantly, when conducting investigations using mixed methods, the set of quantitative and qualitative methods can be integrated in diverse types of mixed methods designs (Creswell et al., 2003; Johnson & Turner, 2003; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998, 2003). The logic of 'triangulation' is based on the assumption that the findings from one aspect of the study can be combined with and checked against the findings from another to mitigate the weaknesses of data sets and enhance their strengths. Taking into consideration that both qualitative and quantitative methods have their strengths and drawbacks, the central concept of triangulation is to enhance the validity of the findings by filling the gaps in each method (Brannen, 1992).

Using various strategies and techniques in the process of collecting and analysing data can result in 'complementary strength' (Johnson & Turner, 2003). In the same vein, the most salient reason for using triangulation in this study was to generate rich and

reliable information by accurately interpreting the themes shared within the multiple datasets. I focused on generating sufficient and rich data to enhance the findings and address the research questions. Thus, a major issue of concern was to ensure that the data analyses would produce opportunities to capture what the investigation intended to address. In this study, the triangulation of data sources and methods was used to provide as comprehensive a picture of the phenomenon as possible, embedded in the particular context and thus aiding interpretation.

4.4.2 Typology-based approaches in mixed methods design

In the earlier discussion, the significance of linking multiple methods in this study was stressed. Regarding the procedural design of mixed methods research, the next issue is how to mix quantitative and qualitative methods. Researchers have discussed different approaches to designing mixed methods research (Creswell, 1999; Creswell et al., 2003; Johnson & Turner, 2003; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998, 2003). Focusing on the complementary strengths of triangulation, the choice of the procedural framework is discussed in this section.

The selection of an effective methodological design needs ensure consistency in 'what is being mixed', 'the place in the research process the mixing occurs' and 'the scope and the purpose of mixing' (Johnson et al., 2007, p. 123). However, according to the literature (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007), there is no definitive framework for designing mixed methods research. Structuring the appropriate design of mixed methods research is based on how closely it can be connected to the goals of the investigations (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007).

There are various classifications of the most widely accepted mixed methods designs dating back to the 1980s. Stressing the complex nature of mixed methods research, the different types and their methodological principles have been further developed and updated by mixed methods scholars (Creswell, 1999, 2003; Creswell & Tashakkori, 2007; Creswell et al., 2003; Greene et al., 1989; Morgan, 1998; Morse, 1991; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998, 2003). Table 4.3 illustrates the major classifications widely used in the social sciences and educational research.

Table 4.3 Summary of typology-based approaches in mixed methods research

Author	Discipline	Mixed methods designs
Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998)	Educational research	Mixed methods designs – Equivalent status (sequential or parallel) – Dominant/less dominant (sequential or parallel) – Multilevel use Mixed model designs i. Confirmatory, qualitative data, statistical analysis and inference ii. Confirmatory, qualitative data, qualitative analysis and inference iii. Exploratory, quantitative data, statistical analysis and inference iv. Exploratory, qualitative data, statistical analysis and inference v. Confirmatory, quantitative data, qualitative analysis and inference vi. Exploratory, quantitative data, qualitative analysis and inference vii. Parallel mixed model viii. Sequential mixed model
Creswell (1999)	Educational policy	– Convergence model – Sequential model – Instrument-building model
Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003)	Social and behavioural research	Multi-strand designs Concurrent mixed designs – Concurrent mixed methods design – Concurrent mixed model design Sequential mixed designs – Sequential mixed methods design – Sequential mixed model design Multistrand conversion mixed designs – Multistrand conversion mixed methods design – Multistrand conversion mixed model design – Fully integrated mixed model design
Creswell et al. (2003)	Educational research	– Sequential explanatory – Sequential exploratory – Sequential transformative – Concurrent triangulation – Concurrent nested – Concurrent transformative
Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009)	Educational research	– Mixed methods multistrand designs – Parallel mixed designs – Sequential mixed designs – Conversion mixed designs – Multilevel mixed designs – Fully integrated mixed designs

(Creswell et al., 2003, pp. 216–217, Table 8.1)

The number of different typologies and the fact that certain characteristics overlap between them made it difficult to choose a single one that would suit this study

perfectly. Thus, the methodological design employed two sequential phases of data collection and analysis, starting with a quantitative method (questionnaire) and proceeding to a qualitative method (interview), followed by a concurrent design in merging the results within a holistic qualitative approach to increase the credibility of the results.

It can be argued that triangulation is a good way to strengthen the benefits of both qualitative and quantitative methods. High-quality studies result from a well-structured research design as well as systematic procedures of application considering the above components (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). To carry out systematic research, Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2010) suggest that researchers should consider the following standards when employing mixed methods in a particular study: *level of mixing*, *time orientation* and *emphasis of approaches* (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2010, p. 3). Level of mixing refers to whether the mixed research is partially or fully mixed; time orientation refers to whether the quantitative and qualitative phases of the research study occur at the same time or whether these two components occur one after the other; emphasis of approach refers to the relative importance of the two methods in answering the research questions, i.e. whether one component has higher priority than another. Table 4.4 shows how the data sources were mixed; they were collected in both quantitative and qualitative methods, and incorporated and interpreted concurrently based on the research questions. The construct of triangulation is essentially related to how the researcher weights the different methods in a study (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). In essence, the use of triangulated mixed methods depends on whether the researcher puts equal or unequal weight on the different data sources during the procedures of data analyses. Reflecting on the standards, typologies and procedures mentioned so far, I adopted a merged approach (see Table 4.4). In this study, the data sources collected were weighed differently for the questions raised for the investigation regarding the focus of each question and its analytical methods. For instance, in terms of Korean EFL secondary students' perceptions (RQ3), quantitative data from student questionnaire were given greater weight for interpreting how students view their teachers' corrective feedback approaches whereas the qualitative data sets from teachers' interview and document (corrective feedback samples) analyses were prioritized in examining and explaining Korean EFL secondary school

teachers' beliefs and perceptions (RQ1 and RQ2) concerning their written corrective feedback and their actual practice in corrective feedback provision (RQ4).

Table 4.4 ***Summary of data collection and analysis procedures***

<table>
<tr><th></th><th>Data collection</th><th>Data analysis</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Procedures</td><td>- Teacher interviews (qualitative)
- Student questionnaires (quantitative)</td><td>Phase 1: Research questions 1, 2 & 3
Qualitative analysis (teacher interviews) + descriptive statistical analysis (student questionnaire)</td></tr>
<tr><td>- Feedback samples (qualitative)</td><td>Phase 2: Research question 4
Qualitative analysis comparing the findings from the sample analysis with those from Phase 1</td></tr>
<tr><td>Time orientation</td><td colspan="2">Concurrent data collection/sequential and concurrent analysis</td></tr>
<tr><td>Emphasis</td><td colspan="2">Higher priority given to qualitative analysis</td></tr>
</table>

This study unites the themes and factors that emerged through both quantitative and qualitative analyses and uses rich and meaningful data to provide detailed explanations in relation to the research questions. It consolidated the key themes from the quantitative analysis and the counterpart themes from the qualitative findings for comparison and to ensure completeness. For example, the student questionnaire was analysed first to respond to the question regarding the Korean secondary EFL students' perceptions concerning their teachers' corrective feedback (RQ3). The teachers' reports in the interviews were used to examine the Korean EFL secondary school teachers' stated beliefs (RQ1) and perceptions (RQ2) concerning their corrective feedback approaches in relation to the quantitative data derived from the student questionnaire. Finally, as shown in Table 4.4, to address the teachers' actual feedback approaches (RQ4), actual feedback samples and the findings from Phase 1 were examined concurrently.

4.5 Research design

4.5.1 Overview of research design

Table 4.5 provides a summary of the research design of this study.

Table 4.5 Summary of research design

Participants	**Students:** • 70 male and female secondary school students aged 13–15 years in Seoul, South Korea • Previous experiences of English education vary (0.5–8 years in both independent and state school settings) • Experience of EFL writing varies from 0–3 years in a private language school setting in Korea or ESL abroad • Participants attend class twice a week after school • Perceived level of English proficiencies: beginning to upper intermediate	**Teachers:** • 8 male and female Korean EFL teachers in the private language school in Seoul, South Korea • Age 29–52 years • Work experience 2–19 years • Experience of teaching writing 1–10 years • Majority have taught in private language schools for secondary school students • Some have experienced studying English abroad and teaching ESL/EFL students abroad
Research site	• School; medium–large private language school for students from age 10 to 18 • Location: Daechi-dong, Gangnam-gu, Seoul, Korea • Number of teachers: around 30 • Number of students: 800–1,000 (varies every month based on registration) *primary school (10–11 years old): 100* *middle school (12–15 years old): 250–350* *high school (16–18 years old): 400-500* • At middle school level, there are around 25-30 classes, each containing 8–12 students • Instructional goals and methods differ based on the program; this study investigates the middle school level, at which EFL writing education is provided. Courses for high-school students are mainly aimed at preparing them for the national university entrance exam; thus, writing is excluded.	
Pilot study	May 2013 – 15 participants randomly chosen from the students at the language school – 1 teacher mini-interview on Skype – 20 copies of the teacher's feedback samples	
Time of data collection	• Data sets collected over a 12-week period from June to August 2013. • Additional teacher interview data and feedback sample data collected from spring to summer 2014. • In the private language school context, the number of the students attending a course changes every month, some discontinuing their study over the school term (in general, one term lasts three months)	
Research methods and instruments	Mixed methods with triangulation • Student questionnaire • Teacher interviews • Documentary review (assessment rubrics; student writing samples; feedback samples)	
Data analysis	• Quantitative: Preliminary descriptive statistics→Distribution patterns with categorical variables → Cross-tabulations with chi squared analyses • Qualitative: Thematic analysis for qualitative data using NVivo10.	

Table 4.5 presents a summary of this small-scale mixed methods research examining beliefs and perceptions related to teachers' corrective feedback approaches and actual practice. As can be seen, the pilot study was conducted in May 2013, prior to the main data collection. The main research was conducted over 12 weeks from June to August 2013. Salient aspects of the study are discussed below.

4.5.2 Research site

The participating language school was located in Daechi-dong, Seoul, South Korea, which has the highest demand for private education in the country. At the middle school level, the school offers English reading, writing, grammar and listening courses. The curriculum mainly focuses on academic reading and writing, including vocabulary and grammar instruction. Instruction is both English and Korean. In general, students have a total of six hours of lessons a week, delivered in sessions twice or three times a week. Writing tasks are given to the students as part of a diverse range of post-reading activities or as an assessment tool for placement tests in the school. In most cases, students do English writing tasks at home and submit them either before or after the next class session. In the school, teachers are provided with a set of assessment rubrics (institutional forms) for evaluating EFL students' essay writing. They then need to provide corrective feedback in response to the students' written assignments.

The cycle of assigning writing tasks and providing teacher feedback in this school setting is as follows: The teachers assign the writing homework, then the students complete it outside class time and submit it at the next class. The teachers collect the homework, correct the errors and return the student papers. The students receive the returned papers and throw them away.

In most private language school courses for secondary school students in Korea, the aforementioned situation gives rise to a mixture of problems. Homework is assigned by the teachers, but the students tend to view submission as voluntary unless their parents force them to complete it (some parents do so). Thus, the rate of homework submission in private schools is very low as it does not affect students' test scores at school. Their purpose in attending private language schools is to perform better in the school tests or high-stakes English proficiency tests. The completion and submission of homework depends entirely on individual students' willingness (and/or parental requirements). The teachers at private language schools have few options to remedy

this problem. They discuss it with pupils and ask them repeatedly to submit their work; it is an energy-consuming task for the teachers in terms of monitoring and addressing the same problem constantly. In essence, the teachers must impel the students to submit their written work before they can consider what feedback to provide.

Another interesting aspect of the private language school context concerns class time. The first class begins at around 5 pm, and the last class must be finished by 10 pm in the Seoul metropolitan area according to Korean law. Also, due to the nature of the competitive profit-making business in private language schools, there is little break time between the classes and teachers and students can meet only during class time unless they do so personally outside class. Thus, both students and teachers need to find time out of class to write assignments and correct errors respectively.

4.5.3 Participants

This study included 70 secondary (middle school) EFL students and 8 bilingual Korean EFL teachers in a private language school in Seoul. The students were drawn from six classes at beginning to intermediate levels, each class consisting of 10–12 male and female students aged between13 and 15 years. Most students at the lower level were less experienced in English writing, while those in the more advanced group were more experienced writers, particularly as some had lived abroad, studying English and attending local schools for between two months and three years. The eight bilingual Korean EFL teachers were from the same school and had teaching experience in various EFL and ESL classroom settings. Also, they had taught courses mostly in private language school settings for secondary level students. Two of the teachers interviewed during the course provided around 120 copies of their feedback samples of their own handwritten corrective feedback after the course was over.

4.6 Data collection

Three main research instruments were adopted to explore the research questions: student questionnaires, teacher interviews and teachers' written corrective feedback samples. In this section, these instruments and the procedural design of data collection are discussed.

4.6.1 Overview of sampling and data collection procedures

Finding a research site and participants was difficult as there were few schools that would allow access to secondary school students and their teachers. The schools I initially contacted refused access due to time constraints on the part of both teachers and students, as well as due to confidentiality issues. Later, I gained permission from the school at which I had previously worked from 2010 to 2012.

Thus, I selected the participants and the site based on the 'purposeful sampling strategy' (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The 'adequacy of the research design' can be evaluated using the sampling procedures (Wilson, 1996, p. 103). This study was conducted over a 16-week period from 1 May to 24 August 2013. In this study the following sources of data were used:

1. First, a three-page semi-structured student survey questionnaire (Appendix 3) was conducted in the fourth week of the EFL reading and writing programme for secondary school students in a private language school setting.
2. Second, due to constraints in terms of time and location, the teacher interviews (Appendix 7) were conducted twice using different modes: i) face-to-face interviews with the first four teachers were administered in the seventh week of the programme in August 2013; ii) online interviews with the rest were conducted via email and Internet messengers (e.g. Skype or Facetime) from September 2013 to May 2014. After that, further online discussions were held to obtain sufficient depth and breadth when needed.
3. Finally, two of the teachers' written corrective feedback samples (Appendix 9 & 10) on Korean EFL students' essay papers were collected at the end of the term in August 2013 and reviewed using qualitative techniques. They comprised:

    - Korean secondary school students' homework essay papers: two different composition tasks during the course.

    - Korean EFL teachers' written corrective feedback on students' writing: twice, during and after the course of the programme.

4.6.2 Piloting

Piloting is considered 'a small-scale trial run of all the procedures planned for use in the main study' (Monette et al., 2002, p. 9). To avoid potential problems, a pilot study

is crucial. The central concept of piloting is to observe the participants and the context in depth and to maximize understanding of the people and the context in which the research is carried out (Dörnyei, 2007). Thus, careful consideration needs to be given to possible factors that may need to be considered during the data collection procedures to increase the validity of the sample (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 108). This section addresses the piloting procedure for this study.

Procedure

In view of the fact that the participating students were underage and that the teachers in the private language schools have excessively tight schedules, I launched a short pilot study to test the questionnaire and interview protocol with a small sample group prior to the main research.

Student questionnaire

The student questionnaire (designed to collect quantitative data) was administered with a sample group of 15 students who were enrolled in the aforementioned school (not included in the main study). The purpose of piloting the questionnaire was to investigate: i) how well the students understood the instructions and guidelines of the questionnaire; ii) how they completed the questionnaire; iii) the return rate for the survey.

Due to the time constraints on Korean secondary school students, the busy schedules of the teachers in private language school settings and the procedures necessary to attain valid consent forms from the students' parents, only a small group of students were able to participate in the piloting prior to the main research. The first sampling was undertaken with about 15 students from 4 different classes in the school. The rate of return was very low as the students kept forgetting to return the document and some failed to turn up in class during the sampling week. For sampling, only 7 students returned their questionnaire responses. Reflecting on them, the instructions and wording of the questionnaire items were modified for the participants in the main study as necessary.

Teacher interview

Piloting of the teacher interview was undertaken with the head teacher of the writing course at the aforementioned school for two main reasons: i) Korean–English bilingual ability and ii) experience in writing instruction for Korean EFL secondary school

students. A single face-to-face semi-structured English interview (see Appendix 7) was conducted and the whole discourse was audio-taped, transcribed and reviewed. The purpose was to examine possible critical issues that might interfere with the process of the teacher interviews and thus to reorganize the questions and the structure of the interviews for the main study. I asked the head teacher questions in terms of her beliefs concerning what constituted helpful written feedback, the nature of the corrective feedback approaches adopted in response to students' errors in written work, the difficulties experienced in providing helpful feedback based on her experience and her suggestions concerning corrective feedback practice.

Documentary analysis

Finally, to review the teachers' written corrective feedback samples, the students' English essay papers containing teachers' handwritten corrective feedback were examined. I investigated the following elements: the students' errors (content vs. form) corrected by teachers and the EFL writing teacher's corrective feedback approaches (e.g. direct or indirect). In some cases, teachers' comments were left at the end of the student essay papers. The purpose of piloting in this regard was to examine how relevant the collected feedback samples were to the investigation of RQ4.

4.6.3 Main data collection procedures

This section discusses how the three data sets, the student questionnaire, teacher interviews and feedback samples, were collected. Prior to conducting the student questionnaire, the students were given a consent form for their parents, requesting permission for their child's participation in the research; these the students returned to the course teachers.

Student questionnaires

The questionnaires aiming to investigate the students' perceptions of the teachers' corrective feedback approaches were employed as they are efficient in gaining responses from participants in a precise and clear way and are most usable if they are stored in a computer file (Dörnyei, 2010, p. 83). Prior to undertaking the questionnaire, parental consent had to be obtained as the student participants were underage. The consent forms, written in English and Korean, were sent to the students' parents to be signed (see Appendices 1 and 2).

For the student questionnaires (see Appendix 3), based on RQ3 (section 1.5), a set of questions was designed to examine the students' perceptions about teachers' feedback approaches. The questionnaire was written in English and consisted of two pages of both close-ended questions and two open-ended questions: 12 multiple choice or Likert-scale items (Dörnyei, 2010) questions for main questions and 2 additional questions for providing their personal comments and reasons for their choice of the answers. The questions in student questionnaire were written in English as their bi-lingual (Korean and English) teachers guided them how to answer each question in English. After the pilot study, some Korean wordings were added to the questions for the participants' clearer understanding (e.g. items 7, 8 & 9 in Appendix 3). In the final version, questions and sections were reorganized or revised in order to make it more coherent and thereafter, to be more easily understood by the participants.

The questionnaire (see Appendix 3) required five to ten minutes for completion. As I did not have direct access to the classrooms, the consent forms and questionnaires were distributed to the students by the class teachers in class time. Also, to ensure students' clear understanding of the questions, their teachers were in the classroom to administer the survey and gave the students directions in Korean on how to answer each question. The questionnaires were collected during the following class. The questionnaires started by asking for personal details such as their name, class name, by number of months/years of their previous experiences of English education, number of months/years of studying in EFL writing classes and their previous experiences of teachers' feedback. As seen in Table 4.6, the questionnaire consisted of four main sections. There were 12 closed-ended questions and 2 open-ended questions for further information about the students' concerns in English writing.

Table 4.6 Overview of students' questionnaire

Section	Item numbers	Item types	Item attribute
Section A	Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4	Multiple choice & Likert scales	Personal learning background
Section B	Q5, Q6		Students' perceived engagement in using feedback
Section C	Q7, Q8, Q9, Q10, Q11, Q12,		Perceptions about teachers' approaches to feedback
Section D	Q13, Q14	Open-ended questions	Students' perceived writing experience and ability

In terms of the questionnaire design, I referred to Dörnyei (2007, 2010), who provides guidelines for questionnaire construction, administration and analysis. I also drew on questionnaires used in previous studies that examined similar research questions, particularly in terms of participants' perceptions and preferences (e.g. Lee, 2004, 2005, 2006; Leki, 1991, 2006; Montgomery & Baker, 2007). The questionnaire designed for the students was distributed to the classes in the school and completed during class time under their teachers' supervision and assistance. After the class, I met the teachers and collected the forms.

Teacher interviews

The purpose of the teacher interviews was to investigate their stated beliefs and perceptions concerning their own feedback approaches to written corrective feedback on their students' EFL texts (RQ1 and RQ2). The interviews were designed to listen to the voices of the teachers' and glean their perspectives based on their own experiences. The questions concerned a range of corrective feedback approaches (see Table 3.1 adopted from Ellis, 2009, p. 98) and additional aspects regarding students' attitudes and preferences. As the key areas of the interview questions overlapped with those of the student questionnaire, some of the questions were asked to elaborate on the responses given by the students.

The interview protocol proposed by Asmussen and Creswell (1995) was used to structure the essential items within the interviews (see Table 4.7 for a summary). As the selected teachers were bilingual speakers of Korean and English, all the interviews were conducted in English. The in-depth and semi-structured interview (see Appendix 7) was conducted in English language since the bi-lingual teachers are proficient in English, but they were also given the freedom to answer the questions in Korean if necessary, to ensure the richness of data. The interview sessions for teachers have closed and open-ended questions to allow the researcher to follow up points which needed elaboration and to clarify questions that were misunderstood by the respondents. In addition, the interviews were conducted in two different modes due to constraints of time and location: i) three face-to-face audio-taped interviews (conducted in August 2013 during course time); ii) the rest of the interviews conducted via email and on-line messenger (conducted from September 2013 to 2014 after the course, when I had returned to the UK).

The face-to-face interviews were conducted in the school meeting room at a pre-arranged time with each interviewee after work. These were semi-structured interviews, comprising four main sections: personal information, their experiences of corrective feedback approaches, their beliefs about good feedback approaches and their concerns about corrective feedback practice in the Korean EFL writing context. Also, they aimed to seek information about the feedback approaches they used in correcting students' errors in written work. Then, five other interviews were conducted online after I returned to the UK. Due to the time difference between Korea and the UK and other constraints in arranging the on-line interview, such as their busy work schedules and Internet accessibility, the interview questions were sent to the participants via email prior to the on-line discussion. The online discussion was undertaken to confirm and complement their previous responses via email to the same questions used in the face-to face interviews.

Table 4.7 Description of main question areas in the teacher interviews

Section	Theme	Question areas
Section 1	Personal information and EFL teaching experience	Total years of teaching English, English writing, training experience, context of teaching, student groups, class size, own experience of learning EFL writing, etc.
Section 2	Teachers' experience of corrective feedback provision	perceptions and experience in relation to error correction in student writing, value of corrective feedback, students' needs, follow-up activities, etc.
Section 3	Teachers' beliefs concerning approaches to corrective feedback in response to students' errors in written work	Own corrective feedback methods, beliefs concerning different approaches to corrective feedback, such as focus of feedback, explicitness and amount, etc.
Section 4	Teachers' concerns regarding CF practice in Korean EFL writing instruction in private language schools	Beliefs concerning effective feedback, difficulties in feedback practice, affective factors, opinions about the need for teacher training for future instruction, etc.

Documentary analysis: teachers' corrective feedback samples

With regard to RQ4, to examine the teachers' actual corrective feedback approaches (e.g. direct or indirect) in response to the range of errors made by the students in their

essay papers, it was necessary to collect actual samples. The teachers' feedback samples aimed to complement and enhance the findings of the student questionnaires and teacher interviews, as well as to look at the extent of agreement between the teachers' reported beliefs and their actual feedback practice.

Around 120 essay drafts were collected from two teachers (those willing to submit feedback samples). The error corrections and comments marked in the drafts were examined based on the issues that emerged from the teacher interviews, such as 'explicitness of feedback' and 'content corrected'. Table 4.8 shows a summary of the framework for examining the documents.

Table 4.8 Description of examination of feedback sample

Theme	Focus of examination
Amount	How much written feedback was provided?
Focus	On what types of errors did the written feedback focus?
Explicitness	How was the written feedback provided? Direct correction, indirect coding, selective or comprehensive?
Other issues	What else could have been done with a particular text in addition to the feedback shown in the sample? What are the difficulties in feedback provision in the current context?

4.6.4 Methodological limitations and risks

Although this study aimed to collect relevant data and evidence, it is important to highlight methodological limitations and risks. These limitations and risks relate, for example, to quality aspects of the research instrument design and sampling issues. Although all research instruments were piloted, it is nevertheless possible that certain survey items and interview questions may not have resulted in meaningful or reliable data. This may be due to response bias (Aiken, 1997; Dörnyei, 2007, 2010; Leech, 2002), namely that respondents feel they should be providing so-called 'good' responses rather than those reflecting their actual views. Student survey respondents might have interpreted the questions based on their beliefs and selected the answer that would appear to be desirable. Writing sensitive items requires considerable thought and attention to the details of specific information (Dörnyei, 2010).

Moreover, the teacher interviewees may have been concerned about the risks of revealing their own instructional principles in relation to personal or social biases, might possibly have felt judged to some extent during the interviews and could have responded to the questions based on their pedagogical beliefs and not on the actual

feedback approaches they used (Borg, 1998, 1999; Breen et al., 2001; Pajares, 1992). Thus, it is important to be aware that there is a risk that teacher interviewees may be influenced by their views of what should be done, not by what is actually done in class, or want to demonstrate that their instructional principles are correct and efficient. Regarding sampling, there is always a risk of low response rates and participants dropping out of the study given that participation is voluntary (Creswell et al., 2003; Denzin, 1978; Miles & Huberman, 1994). One concern relates to the low response rate in feedback sample submission, which was due at the end of the course. Not all the agreed eight teachers' feedback samples were available for further investigation. This resulted from the teachers' busy schedules and personal circumstances after their original consent to participate. Following data collection, I was able to obtain the additional feedback sample data from only two teachers, T2 and T8. Accordingly, the results of the analysis of the samples aimed to describe further complexities embedded in their reported feedback approaches, rather than to confirm the other findings (Creswell & Miller, 2000; Creswell et al., 2003; Denzin, 1978).

4.7 Data analysis

4.7.1 Overview of data analysis

The aims of this study was to carry out an in-depth investigation of teachers' stated beliefs, perceptions and practices concerning written corrective feedback approaches, as well as to examine students' perceptions of their teachers' corrective feedback by integrating both quantitative (student questionnaire) and qualitative (teacher interview and documentary review) data. Figure 4.1 provides a summary illustration of the data analysis procedures, presenting the research questions and the instruments.

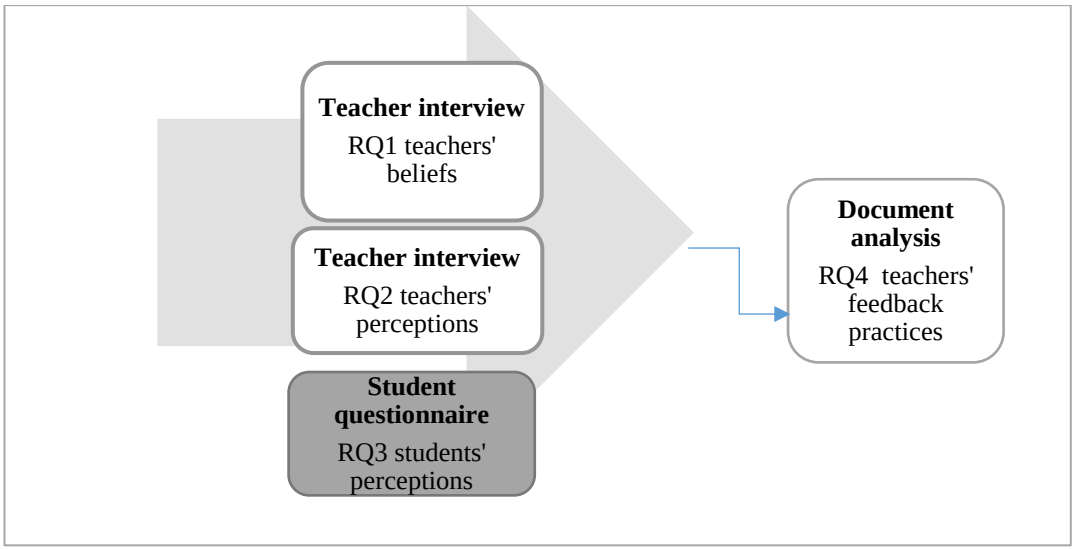


Figure 4.1 Summary of data analysis and research questions

As summarized in the figure, to conduct the data analysis and interpretation, the study consisted of two phases: i) qualitative (teacher interview) and quantitative (student questionnaire) analyses; ii) qualitative analysis of teachers' feedback samples in relation to the initial analyses in phase 1. The second phase of qualitative document analysis aimed to examine teachers' actual approaches in their writing classroom as well as the potential relationship between the results of the data sets. Although the current study employed both quantitative and qualitative data, more weight was put on the qualitative analysis as it could provide detailed information to explain the complex phenomena under investigation. Employing the results obtained from the two different qualitative data sources (teacher interviews and feedback samples), it was possible to examine and interpret the complex features of the teachers' beliefs, perceptions and practices with the related contextual elements.

4.7.2 Methods of data analysis

Student questionnaire

The quantitative data were analysed descriptively using Excel and reduced by means of tables and charts. The quantitative data statistically depict key themes related to RQ3. Excel was used for data entry, manipulation and presentation, running descriptive statistics to analyse students' responses to the questionnaire.

As shown in Table 4.9, there were 14 items in the students' questionnaire (for the full questionnaire, please see Appendix 3). The questions were organized into different types based on the purpose of the items. For example, the majority of the items were

multiple choice questions (Q1, Q2, Q3, Q6, Q9). Also, there were questions (Q4, Q5) with a scale of five responses (never, not very often, sometimes, usually, always), which required respondents to indicate the frequency with which teachers employed particular forms of corrective feedback. There were questions (Q7, Q10) with five-point Likert scale responses (1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = don't know, 4 = disagree, 5 = strongly disagree). The rest of the questions were either dichotomous 'yes' or 'no' (Q10), or open questions (Q13, Q14) that asked participants to respond in their own words. Q10 was asked to obtain additional information after students' responded 'yes' or 'no'.

Table 4.9 Categories of questions in the student questionnaire

Categories	Questions	Item type	Related research question (RQ)
Section A **Personal learning background**	Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4	Multiple choice & Likert scales	RQ1
Section B **Students' perceived engagement in using feedback**	Q5, Q6		
Section C **Perceptions about teachers' approaches to feedback**	Q7, Q8, Q9, Q10, Q11, Q12		
Section D **Students' perceived writing experience and ability**	Q13, Q14		

All the items were analysed using standard Excel, except for the open-ended items, indicated for separate analysis. The data were intended to examine the students' background, attitudes and preferences related to corrective feedback and motivations for learning (related to engagement). Figure 4.2 shows an example of how the options for each item in the questionnaire were coded.

Name	S's Writing experien	Q2 CF frequency	Using CF for revis	Q4 Help from CF	Q5 s's focus areas	Q6 S's post-feedback actions	Q7 NA	Q8writing proficiency	9 preference of C	Q10 vlaue of CF_Y/N	Q11 reasons of No	Q12 reasons for Yes	Q13 demand of C
byj 2	5	4	3	3	3	3		3	4	1		3	3
ksh 2	3	4	3	4	4	1,3		3	2	2	7		3
kjs2	4	4	4	4	4	3		3	6	1		1, 2	4
jsh2	5	3	2	2	4	3		3	2	1		2	4
khr1	3	5	5	4	4	3		3	4	1		2	4
lje1	4	5	4	4	4	3		3	2	1		1, 2, 3	5
bjg1	5	4	3	4	4	6		3	2	1		2	4
kjy1	3	5	3	2	3	3		3	3	1		2, 6	3
jsb	5	5	5	5	3, 4	7		1	2	1		4	5
gch	4	4	3	3	4	1, 2, 4		3	2, 3	1		2	4
lcy1	2	5	4	3	4	1, 5		3	2	1		2, 5	3
nsc1	3	5	4	4	4	3		2	4	1		2	5
osy1	3	3	3	4	3	1		2	2	1		2	3
ghw 2	5	4	5	5	2	1, 3, 4		2	2	1		1	5
ayr3	5	4	3	4	4	3		5	2	1		1	4

Figure 4.2 Process of questionnaire coding

In addition, based on the preliminary analysis, chi-square analysis with cross-tabulations was undertaken to examine the distribution patterns of student preferences. The further investigation was conducted to identify possible relationships between categorical variables, such as student proficiencies influencing their preferences for certain feedback approaches. To determine possible associations between students' responses and their language proficiencies, chi-square tests were conducted at the $p<0.10$ level due to the small number of survey respondents. To compensate for the small amount of data in each cell in the cross-tabulation tables, further grouping was conducted using the 'recode' function in SPSS prior to further data analysis.

Teacher interview

The four phases used in qualitative analysis proposed by Dörnyei (2007) were adopted to analyse the teacher interview data (RQ1 and RQ2): 'transcribing the data, pre-coding and coding, growing ideas-memos, vignettes, profiles, and other forms of data display, and interpreting the data and drawing conclusions' (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 246). To respond to RQ1 and RQ2, I used NVivo 10, a computer-aided qualitative data analysis system, as it provides high-speed data processing and a convenient index function (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 266).

To analyse the data following transcription, the two qualitative data sets (teacher interviews and feedback samples) were simplified into the key themes through coding, as shown in Figure 4.3.

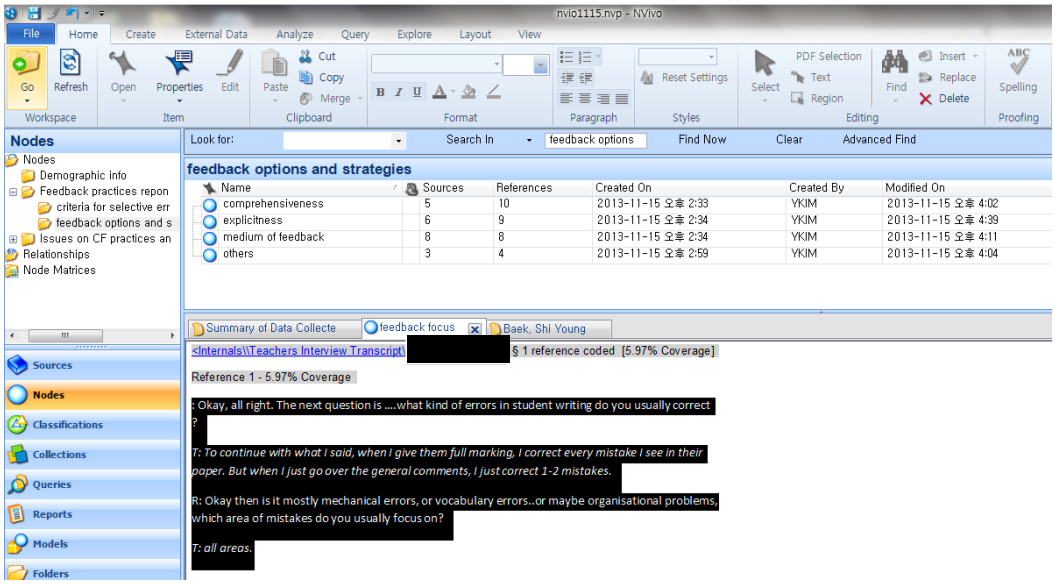
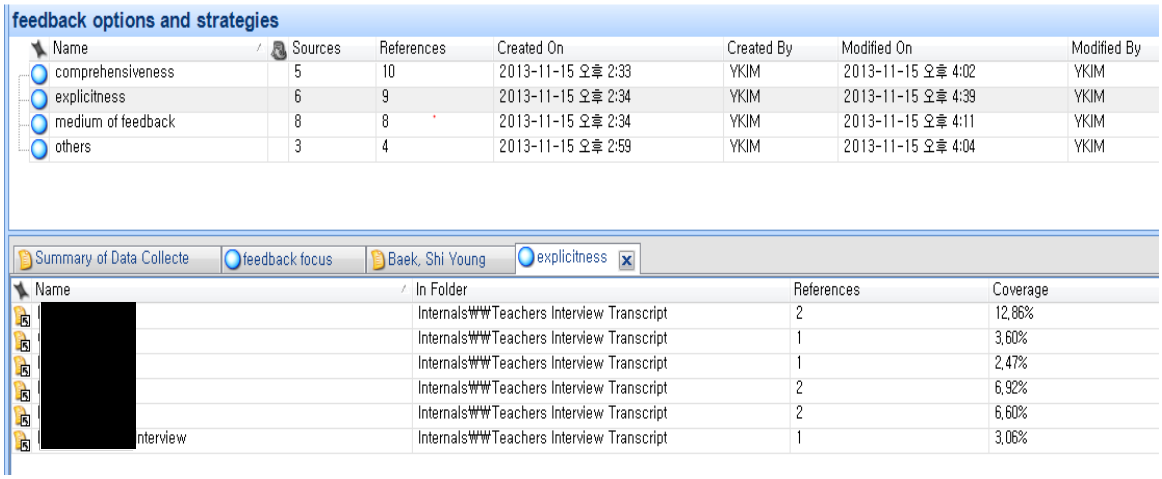


Figure 4.3 Process of initial interview coding

As seen in Figure 4.3, the key themes obtained from the previous quantitative analysis (questionnaire data) were also explored qualitatively from the teachers' perspectives. During the initial analysis, I looked for a range of different nodes and spread them out to seek all the possible themes in a linear form. Then, the data from the eight teachers' responses were sorted into the hierarchy of nodes based on their patterns or relevance. Figures 4.4 and Figure 4.5 show the processes of re-coding.



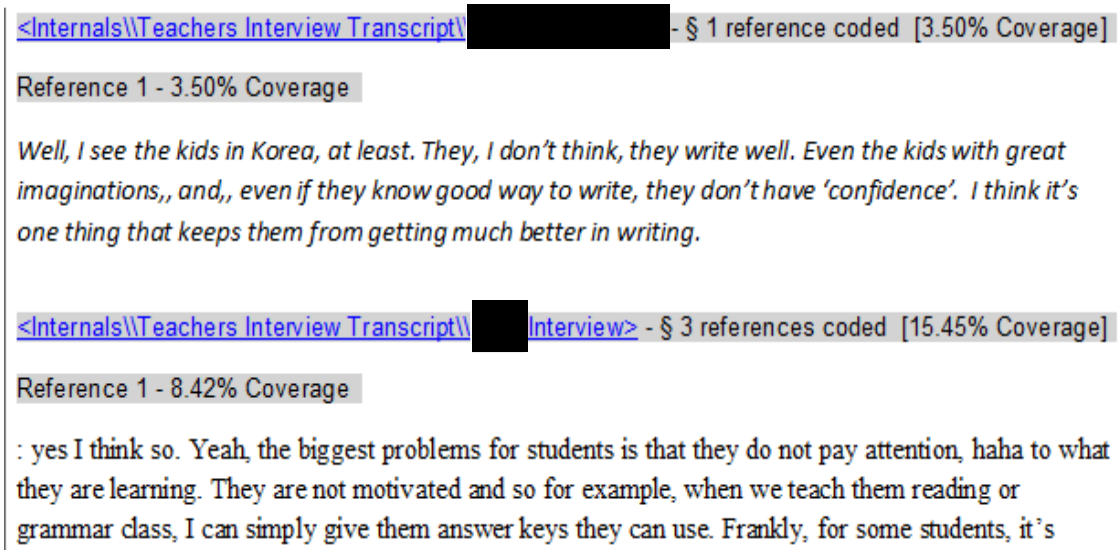
feedback options and strategies

Name	Sources	References	Created On	Created By	Modified On	Modified By
comprehensiveness	5	10	2013-11-15 오후 2:33	YKIM	2013-11-15 오후 4:02	YKIM
explicitness	6	9	2013-11-15 오후 2:34	YKIM	2013-11-15 오후 4:39	YKIM
medium of feedback	8	8	2013-11-15 오후 2:34	YKIM	2013-11-15 오후 4:11	YKIM
others	3	4	2013-11-15 오후 2:59	YKIM	2013-11-15 오후 4:04	YKIM

Summary of Data Collecte | feedback focus | Baek, Shi Young | explicitness

Name	In Folder	References	Coverage
[redacted]	Internals₩₩Teachers Interview Transcript	2	12,86%
[redacted]	Internals₩₩Teachers Interview Transcript	1	3,60%
[redacted]	Internals₩₩Teachers Interview Transcript	1	2,47%
[redacted]	Internals₩₩Teachers Interview Transcript	2	6,92%
[redacted]	Internals₩₩Teachers Interview Transcript	2	6,60%
[redacted]nterview	Internals₩₩Teachers Interview Transcript	1	3,06%

Figure 4.4 Example of second coding with patterns



<Internals\\Teachers Interview Transcript\[redacted] - § 1 reference coded [3.50% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 3.50% Coverage

Well, I see the kids in Korea, at least. They, I don't think, they write well. Even the kids with great imaginations,, and,, even if they know good way to write, they don't have 'confidence'. I think it's one thing that keeps them from getting much better in writing.

<Internals\\Teachers Interview Transcript\\[redacted]Interview> - § 3 references coded [15.45% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 8.42% Coverage

: yes I think so. Yeah, the biggest problems for students is that they do not pay attention, haha to what they are learning. They are not motivated and so for example, when we teach them reading or grammar class, I can simply give them answer keys they can use. Frankly, for some students, it's

Figure 4.5 Examples of information sorted under categorized nodes

During the re-coding processes, nodes without information sources were removed for the sake of simplicity. After re-coding many times, all the categorized nodes were analysed through summarizing and classifying the emergent themes (Miles &

Huberman, 1994). Figure 4.6 below shows examples with and without information sources under the theme of the explicitness of teachers' corrective feedback. The highlighted parts illustrate relevant information regarding the explicitness of feedback.

T: Yes.

R: Okay, I see. Do you think it's more helpful than giving the correct forms directly?

T: yes I think so. Yeah, the biggest problems for students is that they do not pay attention, haha to what they are learning. They are not motivated and so for example, when we teach them reading or grammar class, I can simply give them answer keys they can use. Frankly, for some students, it's better for them to check the answer keys but I don't usually give out the answer keys but most students at that age are more likely to copy what they see in the answer keys and repeat it on their tasks or assignments. So the reason I'm doing this way is that they do not want to do anything that kind of make them feel tired. I think it's better if they have more chances to kind of think themselves, and try to find the answers by themselves. So I wanna give them the opportunities to do so. I'm not gonna give them a direct instruction. #

Figure 4.6 Example of relevant information sources

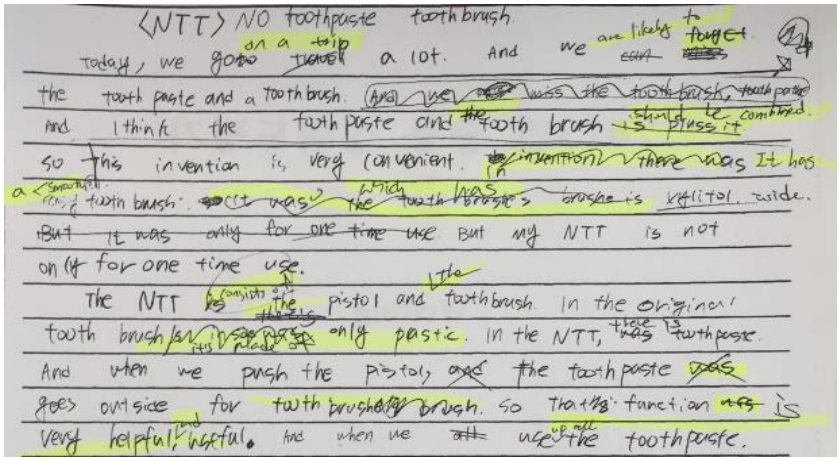
After the above analyses, the findings were compared to and enhanced with those from teachers' actual feedback samples gained at the end of the analytic process. The results from both the teacher interviews and their corrective feedback samples were integrated to enable interpretation of the participating teachers' beliefs concerning the nature of corrective feedback and actual approaches.

Document analysis

To answer RQ4, the teachers' corrective feedback samples for the students' essay papers were analysed using thematic analysis, drawing upon concepts from the literature as well as additional themes from the data. The coding process was the same as for the other qualitative data. For the documentary analysis, I referred to the highly structured approach used for a phenomenological study proposed by Moustakas (1994). Following the literature, the analysis of the feedback samples proceeded in five steps: identifying significant issues, creating themes, clustering themes, describing textural descriptions and merging such descriptions into essential findings.

During the document analysis, the results from the previous quantitative and quantitative analyses were again integrated to be compared with the findings of the sample analysis attempting to identify a potential relationship between the results of the previous quantitative and qualitative interpretations. Figure 4.7 shows an example from T8's feedback on a student's essay paper and analysis of her feedback approaches.

A-1. Actual example for a beginner student



A-2. Typed version of the example above

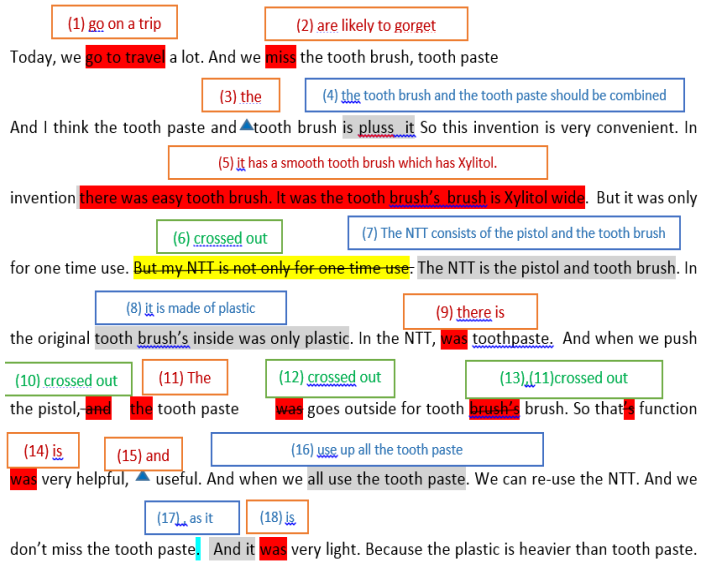


Figure 4.7 Example of feedback sample analysis

To analyse the data from the teachers' feedback samples, I examined the students' essay papers containing the teachers' corrections and selected those samples featuring the matching patterns of the key themes under investigation. It was difficult to code all the features shown in the samples. For instance, they were all handwritten and some of them were not even recognizable due to the poor handwriting. Examples of teachers' direct and indirect feedback, and marginal comments in response to different error types and personal comments were first described by hand. Then, the written descriptions of the samples were organized into the key patterns.

4.8 Trustworthiness and ethical issues

This section describes the procedures followed to comply with research ethics. In conducting the data collection, ethical issues were taken into account for the purpose of preserving anonymity and confidentiality. In this regard, Creswell's (2003) six elements were considered before the process began: participants' consent and the inclusion of three signatures on the consent form: the participant, the researcher and an independent witness, the purpose of the study, the procedures of the study, participants' right to ask any relevant questions and to see the results of the research, participants' privacy and the benefits of the research for the participants. The parent and student consent form was written in both Korean and English to help participants understand all the above points (Appendices 1 and 2).

Before commencing the research, the students were informed that they were going to be part of an academic study. The teachers were asked if they would participate in an interview for research purposes. Informed consent was obtained from the participants. As the students were underage, the consent forms were sent to students' parents to be signed prior to students' participation. Thus, all the participants were given the choice to accept or reject participation in the research. The students participated after they submitted their parents' consent forms to their teachers.

With regard to the procedures for administering the student questionnaires, a cover letter identifying the researcher and explaining the purpose of the questionnaire both in English and Korean was attached to it. The students were also given instructions on how to answer the questions by their teachers in class. They were assured that their responses would be considered highly confidential and that no-one would have access to them but the researcher, for research purposes only.

Also, regarding the procedures for conducting the teacher interviews, the interviewees were informed that their interviews were going to be recorded only for research purposes. To ensure that the participants would consent to their answers being recorded, they were assured that only the researcher would have access to all the data gathered. They were informed that the research being carried out was to reach useful conclusions that could help in the development of teaching and learning. Also, confidentiality purposes, pseudonyms were used for each individual – *T1, T2, T3* and so on – and only I had access to the participants' names and the matching codes.

Furthermore, dealing with ethical issues that may arise during the transcription and translation of the data is important. The interview was conducted in English for reasons of efficient use of time and to avoid possible inaccuracy in translation as all the teachers were bilingual in Korean and English. During the interviews and discussion sessions, I attempted to maintain a sensitive and non-biased attitude toward the participants, and the data collected was kept confidential to prevent potential distress caused by the breaking of their anonymity.

During the research, I intended to collect feedback samples from all eight teachers, but it turned out that only two teachers ultimately submitted feedback samples. Although all the teachers initially agreed to do so, they might have felt sensitive about exposure to any possible criticism or other confidentiality issues. In a private language context, it is not surprising that teachers are reluctant to open up their teaching materials and instructional strategies to scrutiny, and they should not be compelled to do so (this issue is further discussed in terms of reliability of the study in Chapter 8). However, the two teachers who gave feedback samples were reassured that their samples were going to be used for academic purposes only, not for any type of formal evaluation and that the data obtained would remain confidential.

The writing tasks used in teaching were determined by the school curriculum and the teachers. The same syllabus was followed so that the students would not feel their learning activities were affected in class. Thus, the research was carried out during their regular class schedules, not in an experimental setting. As this research investigated teachers' written corrective feedback approaches and students' perceptions of them in relation to writing only, the data collected focused solely on writing, excluding other areas of learning (e.g. reading, listening and grammar). Also, the teacher interviews were arranged at their convenience during the course.

Chapter 5: Findings

This chapter presents the findings addressing the four research questions of the study. It consists of two parts: the findings from quantitative and qualitative analyses. As the findings of the former were employed to provide the foundation for the latter in the process of analysis, I report the quantitative findings first.

Part 1. Quantitative analysis

5.1 Introduction

This section presents the findings from responses to the student questionnaire which was designed to answer the third research question:

RQ3. What are Korean EFL secondary students' perceptions concerning their teachers' written corrective feedback?

The quantitative data from the student questionnaire were used to provide descriptive statistics to answer the aforementioned research question. The various figures and charts in this section display the results of the descriptive statistics. The findings from the student questionnaire are presented in four sub-sections: i) students' prior EFL writing experience; ii) students' beliefs concerning the helpfulness of feedback; iii) students' perceptions of teachers' approaches to corrective feedback; iv) students' engagement in using teachers' feedback for improvement; v) possible relationships between the categorical variables within the data distribution.

5.2 Students' prior EFL writing experience

Descriptive analysis was employed to examine the students' previous EFL writing experiences. As Figure 5.1 shows, participants' previous learning experience ranges from 'no experience' to 'over three years', with the majority (65%) reporting more than two years' experience.

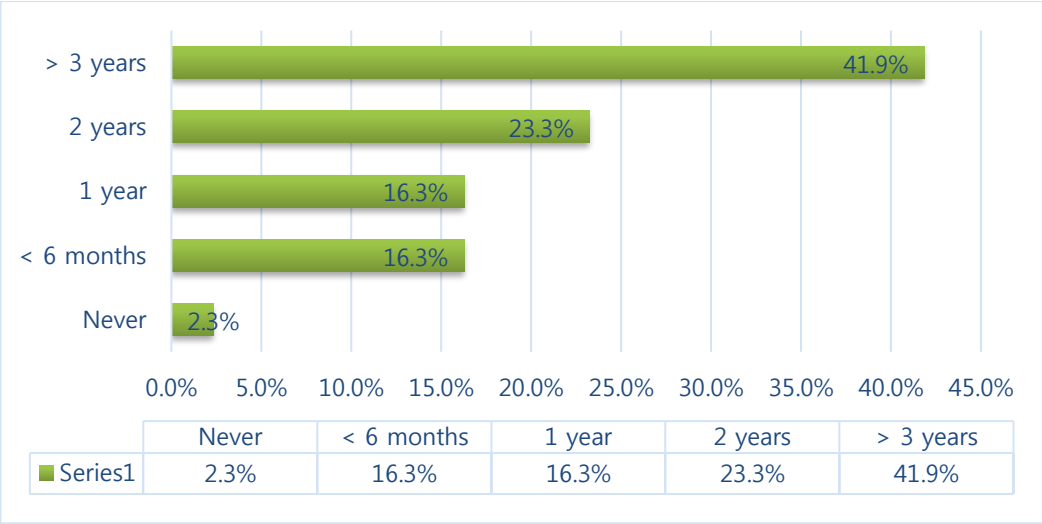
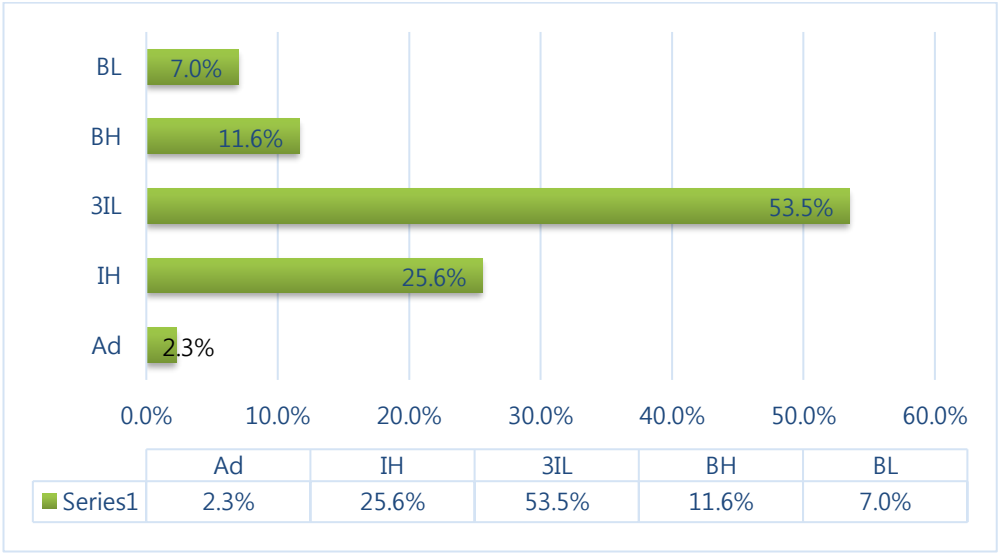


Figure 5.1 Length of students' EFL writing education experience

Moreover, the students' English proficiency levels were diverse, ranging from beginner to advanced, as can be seen in Figure 5.2 below. The majority of the participants were placed in intermediate groups.



Notes: Ad = advanced, IH = intermediate high, 3 IL = low intermediate, BH = beginning high, BL = beginning low

Figure 5.2 Students' current language proficiency

The results for the students' EFL proficiency were based on the previous writing test scores from the placement test administered by the school. Thus, their writing proficiency shown in the above figure may or may not correspond to their actual English ability at the time of data collection. However, these data illustrate the range of proficiency levels of the participants and that the majority of them (53.5%) lie in

the mid-level, *low intermediate*, on the continuum of the levels shown above. Considering the variety of learning backgrounds of the participants, I assume their target level and progress in writing development may vary and therefore how they perceive the teachers' corrective feedback may also vary.

5.3 Students' perceptions concerning the helpfulness of corrective feedback

The participants were asked about their beliefs concerning the helpfulness of corrective feedback from Korean EFL teachers in classrooms in Korea. The questions were asked to explore whether students agree that corrective feedback is helpful and whether they believe teachers' corrective feedback is necessary to develop their writing.

First, the need for teachers' feedback was addressed by item 7 in the questionnaire, asking whether corrective feedback is necessary to improve writing. The findings confirm that the great majority of the participants (73%) consider that it is necessary, indicating that they usually or strongly need to receive teachers' feedback to improve their writing ability, while only a small percentage (22.7%) of the participants stated, 'a little bit'.

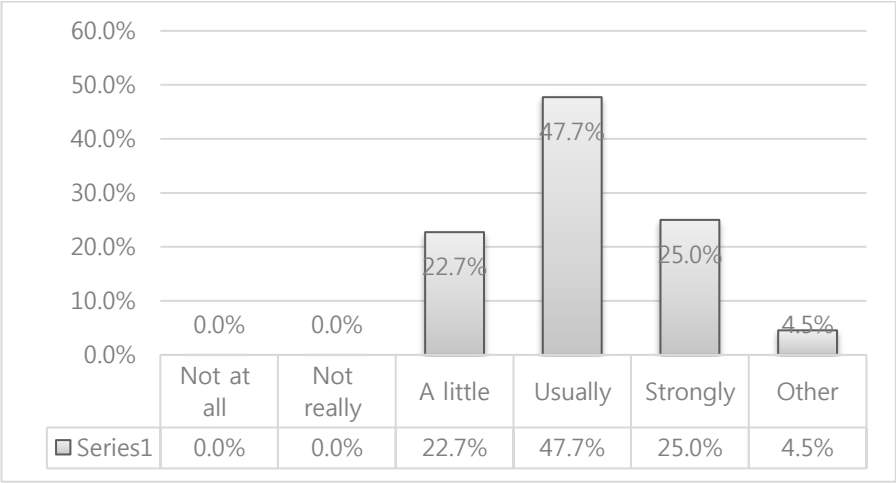


Figure 5.3 Students' responses to the need of corrective feedback

In relation to the question above, items 10, 11 and 12 then examined the reasons for their responses. The vast majority of respondents (95%) believe that teachers' corrective feedback plays an essential role in their EFL writing development. As shown in Figure 5.3 above, the responses to the question were predominantly positive, in favour of teachers' corrective feedback delivery. In all, 95.3% (45 of the 47 students)

of the respondents indicated that the teachers' corrective feedback helps them improve their English writing skills.

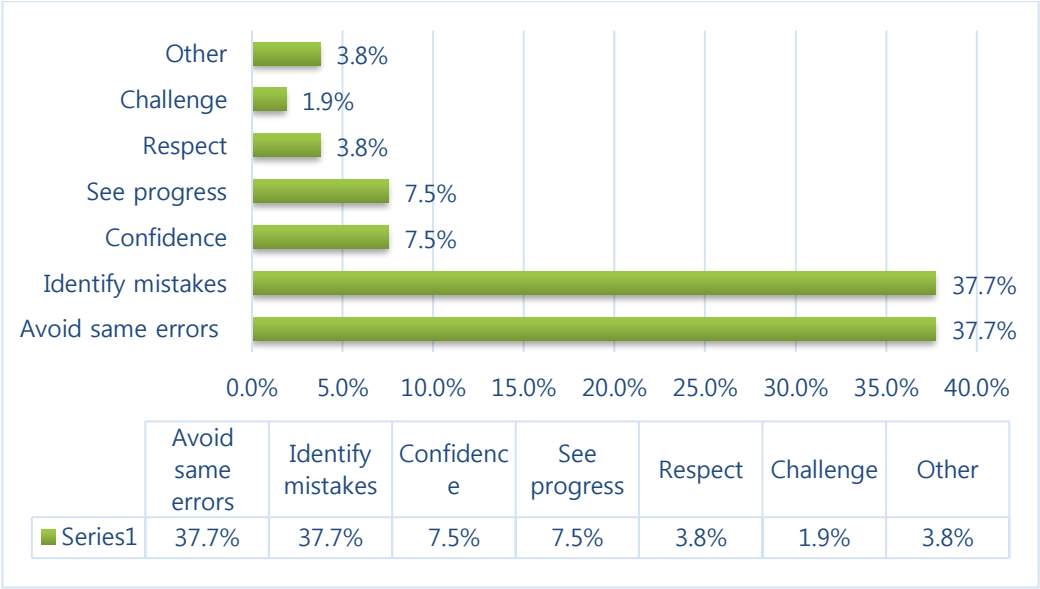


Figure 5.4 Supporting reasons for positive responses

With regard to positive responses to the question of the helpfulness of corrective feedback, as shown in Figure 5.4, the students specified the following reasons. The majority of students (75%) considered that they need feedback *to understand where their mistakes are* (i.e. to identify what mistakes they make) or *to avoid the same errors in their next writing*. This indicates that the Korean EFL students were aware of the fact that they make mistakes in writing and needed to be informed of *what* to improve and *how* to improve errors in their writing by receiving teachers' corrective feedback. Also, 7.5% wanted feedback as a form of encouragement through teachers' positive comments and to give them confidence in writing. Another 7.5% of students believed that they could see their writing progress if they received teachers' corrective feedback. In contrast, only 2 of the 47 students (4.7%) said they did not find corrective feedback helpful, either because they quickly forgot the feedback, or they found it too general.

5.4 Students' perceptions of teachers' approaches to corrective feedback

The next question concerned students' perceptions in relation to their teachers' approaches to corrective feedback. Although clearly there will be no single form of error treatment demanded by varying groups of learners, essentially, I looked into participants' expectations and preferences when receiving teachers' corrective

feedback regarding: i) the area of improvement focused on in teachers' feedback; ii) the level of explicitness of teachers' feedback approaches.

5.4.1 The area of improvement focused on in corrective feedback

Regarding the specific focus of feedback, diverse aspects can be addressed when corrective feedback is provided (e.g. ideas, organization, sentence structure, syntactic and lexical areas). The majority (72%) of the students chose 'grammar and sentence structure' as preferred areas for improvement, suggesting their focus in their writing centres on improvement in 'accuracy'. Of these, 50% of the participants reported that they need teachers' feedback on 'grammar' and 22.7% responded that 'sentence structure' needs to be emphasized when teachers' provide corrective feedback. In contrast, only 18% of the students considered that 'essay construction' (content and organization) should be the focused when teachers mark written work. Figure 5.5 below summarizes students' preferences for the focus of corrective feedback on writing.

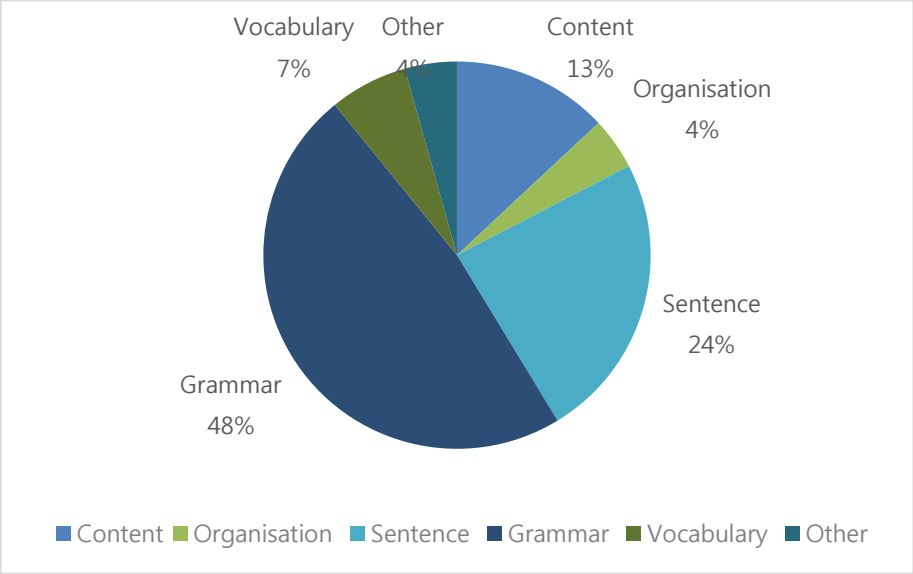


Figure 5.5 Students' preferences for teachers' focus areas in corrective feedback

5.4.2 Explicitness of corrective feedback

The next part of the questionnaire concerned the students' perceptions regarding the explicitness of teachers' corrective feedback, examining Korean EFL students' views on different levels of explicitness based on the typology of feedback specified in Ellis (2009; cf. Table 3.1 in Chapter 3), namely: i) indirect feedback; ii) selective direct

feedback; iii) comprehensive direct feedback; iv) no correction ; v) other. The purpose of this question was not to compare the effectiveness of certain approaches of feedback, but to look at students' overall preferences in terms of the explicitness of teachers' feedback as shown in Figure 5.6.

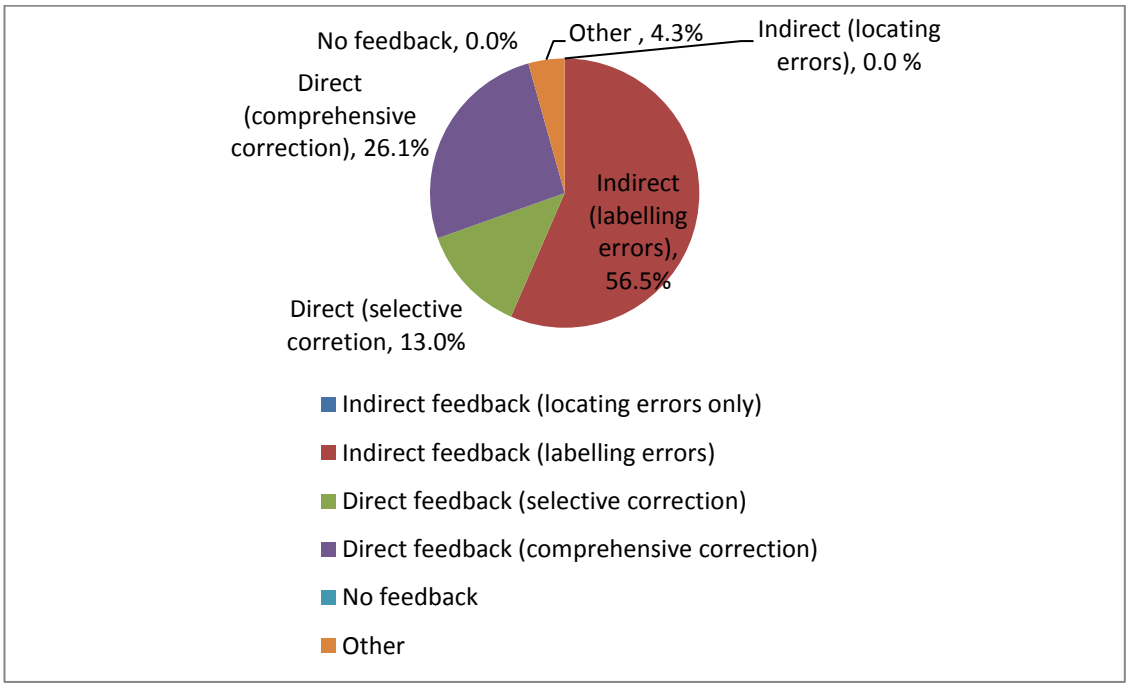


Figure 5.6 Students' preferences for explicitness in teachers' corrective feedback

The types of corrective feedback approaches in the questionnaire given to the participants included indirect feedback (identifying errors without correction) and two types of direct feedback (selective and comprehensive). The results suggest that Korean secondary school students want teachers to provide error correction indirectly by locating where errors are and explaining what type of errors they are. As shown in Figure 5.6 above, a high percentage (56.5%) of the participants preferred 'indirect feedback' (identifying the error types without correction). Other forms of feedback preferred by the participants were 'comprehensive direct feedback' (26%) followed by 'selective direct feedback' (13%). The rest of the students (4.3%) added their own preference, specifying that they preferred 'teacher comments' to any other type of feedback.

The students' responses regarding the explicitness of feedback show that they consider *indirect* corrective feedback to be most helpful. In receiving 'indirect' feedback, Korean secondary school students want to find out what kind of errors they make in their writing, but not to have them corrected. In contrast, *direct* feedback (marking

errors and providing the correct forms) was preferred by a total of approximately 39% of the participants. Of these, around 26% viewed *comprehensive* direct feedback (correcting all the errors) as helpful and 13% preferred *selective* feedback (correcting only some pertinent errors).

In sum, the majority of the respondents preferred to receive indirect feedback, in which the type of error is indicated (Ferris, 2011). The Korean EFL secondary school students believed that such feedback helps them to acquire linguistic structures and reduce errors over time (Ferris & Roberts, 2001).

5.5 Students' perceptions of the importance of learning from corrective feedback

This section is concerned with the extent to which students are interested in learning from the feedback teachers provide and how they make use of teachers' corrective feedback. It addresses the attention students pay to teachers' written corrective feedback by looking into what they do after they such feedback. Specifically, the students were asked if they make use of their teachers' feedback (whether they read feedback with care and then attempt to use it effectively in new drafts) and if so, how they use it for self-learning. The key results are summarized in what follows.

The first question in this section concerned how frequently the participants undertake self- corrections of errors in their writing after corrective feedback. Their responses varied somewhat. From Figure 5.7, it is apparent that only a small number (11%) of participants reported always revising their written texts after receiving teachers' corrective feedback, although the great majority (79%) responded that they do engage in self-editing to a varying extent: 'sometimes' (42%), 'usually' (37%) and 'not very often' (9.3%). Students thus seem to attend to teachers' feedback regarding their errors, but not all of them are sufficiently motivated to use this feedback to revise their errors.

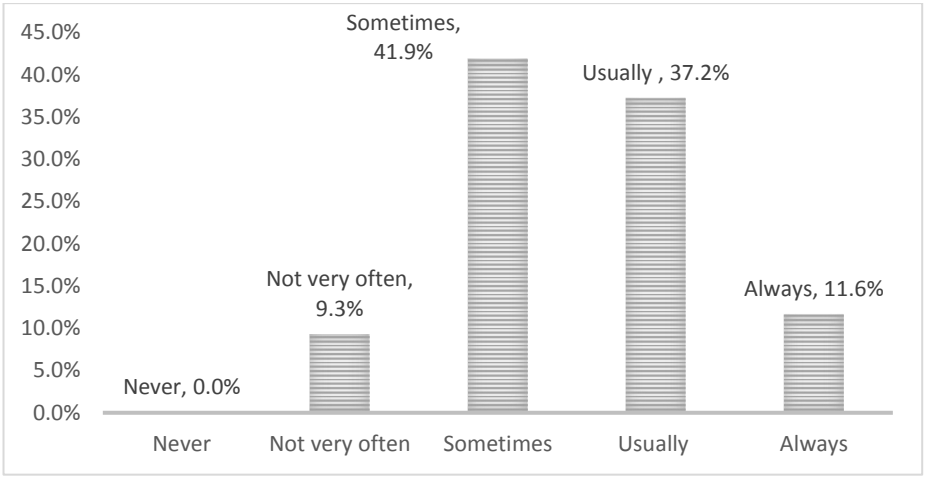


Figure 5.7 Students' engagement in using teachers' feedback for improvement

The next question aimed to identify what the participants do after receiving corrective feedback on their errors in terms of the efforts they make to improve their writing as EFL learners of writing. Figure 5.8 below displays the students' follow-up activities in response to written corrective feedback.

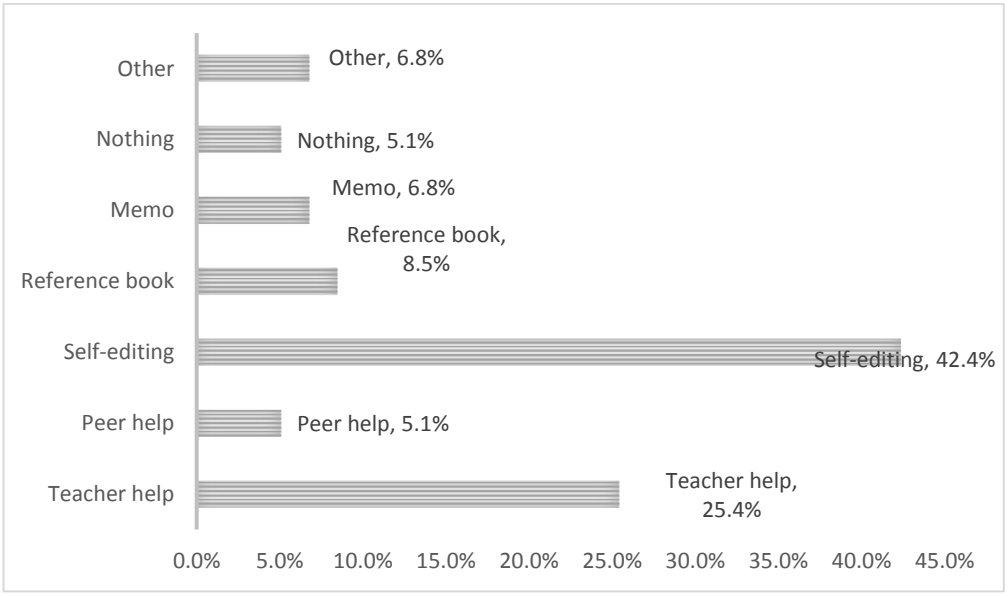


Figure 5.8 Students' follow-up activities in response to teachers' corrective feedback

From the figure, it is apparent that the majority (42.4%) of the respondents' report correcting their errors in writing and revising the drafts after receiving corrective feedback. Other actions taken by the respondents after feedback were as follows: asking for teachers' help to improve their writing (25.4%), looking up reference books for help (8.5%) and making memos (6.8%). The others said either they do not engage in any activities or do something else (e.g. memorize teachers' corrective feedback).

Thus, apart from only 5% of the students, the majority seem to make use of teachers' feedback to improve their writing.

5.6 Possible relationships between specific variables within the data distribution

In a further step, I expanded the analysis to determine whether there is a relationship between any specific variables within the data distribution. The reason for including further statistical analyses was to identify possible associations between students' responses and their language proficiencies. Essentially, I examined the participants' responses on the questionnaire and their English proficiencies based on their course levels as the only advanced students attended a course called ACE program. Only students with high achievement scores in both writing and reading tests were placed in this program.

Using cross-tabulations with chi-square analysis, I investigated any particular relationships between their language proficiencies and the following areas: i) participants' preferences for explicitness of feedback approaches and ii) participants' preferences concerning the focus of feedback. To compensate for the small numbers of data in each cell in the cross-tabulation, further grouping was conducted using the 'recode' function in the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) prior to the data analysis. The student participants were categorized in two proficiency groups: i) beginner (e.g. non-ACE programme attendees) and ii) intermediate or higher (e.g. ACE programme attendees). The statistical significance was determined at $p<0.10$ due to the small number of respondents.

5.6.1 Proficiency level and focus of corrective feedback

The Pearson chi-squared analysis showed no significant differences in regard to feedback focused on content or organization between the two proficiency groups. Tables 5.1 shows students' preference for feedback focused on content and organization by student proficiency groups. While 30 of 35 (85.7%) students in the beginner group prefer not to receive feedback focused on content and organization, neither did five of eight (62.5%) students in the intermediate or above group. The difference in student preference between two groups was not significant.

Table 5.1 Preference for feedback focused on content or organization by student proficiency groups

Student preference for content and organization	Student proficiency groups			
	Group 1: Beginners n (% preferred)	Group 2: Intermediate or above	χ^2	p[a]
Yes	5 (14.3%)	3 (37.5%)	2.32	0.128[n.s.]
No	30 (85.7%)	5 (62.5%)		

[a] Results of Pearson chi-square analysis

However, there was a significant ($p<0.10$) difference in student preferences in regard to feedback focused on sentence structure and grammar. While 28 of 35 students (80%) in beginner group preferred feedback focused on sentence structure and grammar, only four or eight (50%) students in intermediate or above group did. This finding reveals that greater proportion of students at the beginner stage prefer feedback focused on sentence structure and grammar (Table 5.2).

Table 5.2 Students' preference for feedback on sentence structure or grammar by proficiency level

Student preference for sentence structure & grammar feedback	Student proficiency groups			
	Group 1: Beginners n (% preferred)	Group 2: Intermediate or above	χ^2	p[a]
Yes	28 (80.0%)	4 (50.0%)	3.08	0.079
No	7 (20.0%)	4 (50.0%)		

[a] Results of Pearson chi-square analysis.

5.6.2 Proficiency level and explicitness of corrective feedback

With regard to the explicitness of teacher feedback, as already noted in section 5.4.2, the majority of the participants who are beginners (63%) and intermediate or higher (57%) reported a preference for indirect feedback (underlining and explaining the error types), followed by comprehensive direct feedback (correcting all the errors in the paper) and selective direct feedback (correcting the most serious or important errors only).

To investigate the possible relationship between students' proficiency levels and their preferences for level of feedback explicitness, the response distributions were closely examined again in relation to the participants' proficiency levels: beginners (group 1) vs. intermediate or above (group 2). To determine any potential relationship between proficiency level and the particular choice of the options given, I classified the options chosen by the majority of participants, particularly those who preferred to have indirect coding, comprehensive direct feedback, and selective direct feedback. The results

confirmed that there were no significant differences between the proficiency groups in terms of the preferred approaches of teachers' corrective feedback. Tables 5.3, 5.4 and 5.5 summarize the results.

Table 5.3 below shows that the majority of the participants in both groups, beginners (62.5%) and intermediate or higher (57.1%), preferred the circling of errors as well as explaining the types of errors in indirect coding. There was no significant difference between the beginners and intermediate or over levels in choosing the option of the feedback approaches. Moreover, both groups equally prefer the indirect coding option to other types of feedback.

Table 5.3 Students' preference for indirect coding by proficiency level

	Student proficiency groups		**Total**
	Group 1: Beginners	Group2: intermediate or above	
Preference for indirect coding	**5** **62.5%**	**20** **57.1%**	**25** **58.1%**
Total	8 100%	35 100%	43 100.0%

Also, to determine the students' preference for comprehensiveness of feedback, the following two cases were looked at. First, in terms of students' preference for comprehensive feedback (see Table 5.4), the result showed that while 31.4 % of intermediate or over participants (group 2) expressed a preference for comprehensive feedback (all errors to be corrected), only 12.5 % of beginners (group 1) did so.

Table 5.4 Students' preference for comprehensive direct feedback by proficiency level

	Student proficiency groups		**Total**
	Group 1: Beginners	Group2: Intermediate or above	
Preference for comprehensive direct feedback	**1** **12.5%**	**11** **31.4%**	**12** **27.9%**
Total	8 100%	35 100%	43 100.0%

Second, consistent with the results in Table 5.5, the results for selective feedback are reversed: only 11.4 % of intermediate or advanced participants preferred this form, while 25.0% of beginners did. Fewer participants preferred receiving corrections of the most serious errors only.

Table 5.5 Students' preferences for selective direct feedback by proficiency level

		Student proficiency groups		Total
		Group 1: Beginners	Group2: Intermediate or above	
	Preference for selective direct feedback	**2** **25.0%**	**4** **11.4%**	**6** **100.0%**
Total		100%	100%	43 100.0%

To sum up, in terms of language proficiency of the students, the findings of the further investigation on explicitness of teachers' feedback showed that there are no significant differences between the proficiency groups. There was no significant association between students' language proficiencies and their preferred options of teachers' feedback explicitness.

5.7 Summary of quantitative analysis

Part I of this chapter has analysed the findings from the student questionnaire conducted with 70 Korean EFL secondary school students (aged 13–15). The students' learning background and experience varied, but the majority of them had studied English writing for over three years in language schools and most were intermediate or above.

The results of the survey show that a high percentage (95%) of the participants consider teachers' corrective feedback to be beneficial for improving their writing and they expressed willingness to receive feedback from their teachers consistently in future instruction. As to the students' responses regarding their preference for explicitness level of teachers' corrective feedback, indirect feedback underlining and explaining the error types) was predominantly favoured, followed by comprehensive direct feedback (correcting all the errors in writing). Another question explored in the analysis concerned the areas that students would like to improve in their writing and wish to get teachers' feedback on. In all, 73% expressed a preference for feedback on sentence structure and grammar, whereas only 18% favoured a focus on content and organization.

In addition, examining the distribution patterns of the students' preferences with regards to corrective feedback approaches, I further investigated any particular relationships between their language proficiencies and the following areas, using

cross-tabulations with chi-square analysis: i) participants' preferences for explicitness of feedback approaches and ii) participants' preferences concerning the focus of corrective feedback. The preliminary results were separately analysed based on the different proficiency levels using cross-tabulations with chi-square test in order to see if there is any relationship between proficiency level and a particular choice of options. The findings revealed no significant differences (see section 5.6.2) between the two proficiency groups with regard to their preference for explicitness of feedback. However, there was a significant ($p<0.10$) difference between the two proficiency groups with regards to their preference for feedback focused on sentence structure and grammar. While 28 of 35 students (80%) in beginner group preferred feedback focused on sentence structure and grammar, only four of eight (50%) students in intermediate or above group did. A greater proportion of students at the beginner stage prefer feedback focused on sentence structure and grammar (see Table 5.2).

Finally, the extent to which students report making revisions to their writing in response to teachers' feedback was explored. The findings reveal that only 11% of the students state that they always make revisions in reaction to their teachers' corrective feedback. The rest showed mixed responses. This aspect may be affected by students' learning styles, motivation or other factors.

Overall, the study findings from the student questionnaire can be viewed as suggestive rather than conclusive. They serve as the foundation for the more detailed interpretation of the other data sets in this study, namely the teacher interviews and feedback samples, the findings of which are presented in Part II of this chapter. The results of both the quantitative and qualitative analyses are then discussed in Chapter 6.

Part 2. Qualitative analysis

5.8 Introduction

The central focus of the study was to investigate complex nature of teachers' beliefs in shaping their written corrective feedback approaches to students' written work. This part of the chapter reports on the qualitative analyses, presenting the main findings regarding RQ1, RQ2 and RQ4: teachers' stated beliefs, perceptions and practices of their written corrective feedback approaches (cf. 4.3). The semi-structured interviews investigated eight Korean EFL teachers' beliefs of the helpfulness of corrective feedback and their perceptions of their own written feedback approaches in the EFL writing classroom with regard to: i) levels of explicitness (i.e. direct vs. indirect) and ii) the focus of error correction in students written work(i.e. form vs. content) (cf. 4.3). The findings reported here draw on qualitative analysis conducted using NVivo 10. The results were cross-checked with the findings from the students' survey, aiming to gain further understanding in terms of *what has been going on* and *why it has been occurring* in the context. They were also compared to the other qualitative data – teachers' feedback samples – to examine related issues. In the case of the teachers' feedback samples, selected examples showing the relevant features investigated are provided. The excerpts show both the original handwritten version and a typed, coded version as many of the handwritten words were not legible and some were written in Korean.

I organized the results of the two data sets in relation to the themes of the findings from the student survey (RQ3) and explored whether the findings from the student survey and those of teachers' interviews produced similar or different results within the same question areas as the analytic categories of the teacher interviews emerged from the findings from the student survey.

After transcribing the interviews, to start coding, I summarized the Korean EFL secondary school teachers' comments based on the aspects related to RQ1 (teachers' stated beliefs of written corrective feedback), classified their responses into the main categories from the themes addressed in relation to RQ2 (teachers' perceptions of written corrective feedback approaches) and addressed the extent of teachers' actual written corrective feedback used in the samples of students' written work (RQ4).

I read each participant's responses and interpreted them to formulate an initial framework for the sub-categories. Then, I reviewed each participant's responses line by line to enhance confidence in the results of the analysis. The findings are presented in the following order:

1. Teachers' stated beliefs concerning written corrective feedback.
2. Teachers' perceptions of their own written corrective feedback approaches (i.e. form-focused vs. content-focused, direct vs. indirect approaches, etc.).
3. The nature and extent of teachers' actual written corrective feedback used in students' essay samples in relation to their own and students' perceptions.

5.9 Teachers' stated beliefs concerning written corrective feedback (RQ1)

RQ1. What are the stated beliefs of Korean EFL secondary school teachers with regard to written corrective feedback?

This section presents the findings from teacher interviews, outlining Korean EFL teachers' stated beliefs concerning corrective feedback as well as their explanations for their responses with regard to the following themes: i) helpfulness of feedback; ii) teachers' own experiences of learning (e.g. Borg, 1998, 1999; Breen et al., 2001, Pajares, 1992); iii) students' engagement (e.g. Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994); iv) the socioeconomic context of education (e.g. Bray & Kwok, 2003; Jeon & Lee, 2006; Jeong, 2004). These are all aspects that the teachers reported were related to their principles governing feedback approaches (Borg, 1998, 1999, 2011; Breen et al., 2001).

First, on the question of the helpfulness of corrective feedback, the findings from the teacher interviews were mixed. Of the eight teachers interviewed, four (T1, T3, T6, T8) considered corrective feedback useful (see Excerpt 5.1), one (T4) disagreed (see Excerpt 5.2) and three (T2, T5, T7) adopted a neutral position, saying that it depends on various circumstances in the learning context (see Excerpt 5.3).

As shown in Excerpt 5.1 below, of the four teachers who argued the positive aspects of corrective feedback, two strongly agreed that it is helpful in the EFL environment. T8 emphasized the role of teachers' corrective feedback as a *duty* and stated that their feedback is essential for L2 students' writing development. For L2 students, teachers

must provide well-formed feedback as a model so that the students can learn the right forms and expressions. However, as noted by T3, corrective feedback should consider students' needs and learning style. Moreover, T1 sounded a note of caution with regard to the amount of feedback provided to the students. Students might be intimidated by overly corrected work and this might discourage L2 students from re-reading their drafts and undertaking further improvement.

Excerpt 5.1 Positive responses on the helpfulness of corrective feedback

T1:

I think teachers must … provide corrective feedback, erm but they have to be careful. Cos, I've, I've noticed that if I make too many corrections, it definitely discourages the students.

T3:

It is necessary, but I think how and when it is given/practised is important … teachers should consider the best way to give feedback to each student… Then, I think teachers can expect positive effects from their feedback.

T6:

I think that error correction is important, and I let the students check their essays with error correction feedback … I think it helps students to improve their writing ability.

T8:

I think that teachers' feedback is actually very important… English is their second language, without our feedback, they cannot learn what is right. So, I think it's essential for their improvement. Also, at the same time, it's the teachers' duty.

In contrast, as shown in Excerpt 5.2 below, T4 expressed doubts about the helpfulness of corrective feedback in the Korean EFL context. She had taught English writing both in the American ESL context and the Korean EFL context. Based on her personal teaching experience, she was concerned about English writing education in the latter context as it has received scant attention from stakeholders. Thus, she denied the helpfulness of corrective feedback based on her previous experience of teaching EFL writing in Korea.

Excerpt 5.2 Negative response on the helpfulness of corrective feedback

T4:

Do you think student writing can work in the Korean EFL context? It seems my correction usually doesn't help as much as I thought. I don't think it helps students to improve their writing ability.

Finally, the last group of teachers (T2, T5, T7) adopted a neutral position towards corrective feedback, arguing that it could be helpful depending on the particular circumstances. They considered that corrective feedback is helpful only when: (i) *students try to make an effort to read and correct their papers*; (ii) *teachers' corrective feedback is given on only grammatical or linguistic errors*; (iii) *students are highly motivated to learn and willing to read the teachers' feedback*.

Another element articulated regarding the beliefs driving teachers' feedback approaches was student engagement. Excerpt 5.3 shows how teachers' beliefs concerning feedback approaches are affected by their students' engagement. T2 and T7 both pointed out the importance of students' motivation and self-editing after teachers' feedback. However, as seen in Excerpt 5.3 below, T4 placed strong emphasis on the benefits of only form-focused feedback as he considered that writers' expressions and voice should not be corrected by teachers to avoid hindering creativity in writing.

Excerpt 5.3 'It depends on…' response to the helpfulness of corrective feedback

T2:

I guess it could be considered both beneficial and not beneficial for the students. Those who actually read our corrections/comments and try to wrestle with their mistakes actually do benefit from our corrections/comments. But those students who do not even read our corrections/comments don't really get the chance to improve their writing skills.

T4:

Correcting errors in grammar/sentence structure is fine and it must be corrected to develop language skills. But correcting expressions and correcting the 'voice' of the writing shouldn't be done. Teachers must avoid it.

T7:

I think it's necessary for only some students. Mostly students are not highly motivated. So even if I give them some good feedback, they are not willing to read it. So, it's kind of meaningless sometimes. But for the highly motivated students, it's really necessary for them to get proper feedback from their teachers.

As shown in Excerpt 5.4, T2's view echoes that of T3 (who expressed a strongly positive response) in terms of the importance of students following up through revision

and self-learning. T3 believed that teachers' corrective feedback can work only when it is applied to students' next writing assignments,.

Excerpt 5.4

T3: The difficulty is that if students simply ignore all the corrections/suggestions/comments and do not apply them to their revisions or next writing practice, the feedback may become useless.

Finally, as seen in Excerpt 5.5 below, of the eight Korean EFL teachers, only one (T7) reported using indirect feedback and considered it a good way of helping them to improve their writing in future drafts. He said he sometimes personally gives one-on-one writing consultation if the students have difficulties understanding his feedback. However, as the class meets once or twice per week in the evening and neither the teacher nor students have much time after class, the teacher acknowledged that such writing consultations are the exception rather than the norm in the given context. Such contextual factors are further explained in section 5.11.

Excerpt 5.5

T7:

So, for example, if they make some mistakes regarding 'tense', I write 'tense' and underline where they make mistakes. And I add 'pay attention to tense' and 'you can refer to this book, page xx' … when many of the students have a hard time understanding it, I personally approach them and explain my comments about what they wrote. But pretty often, I don't have enough time to instruct them on a one-on-one basis.

During the interview, T7 provided more explanation about how and why he uses a specific approach for the students in the given context. Excerpt 5.6 shows the reasons for his choice of approach.

Excerpt 5.6

Reference 2 – 3.44% coverage

T7:

First of all, I try to pay attention to my handwriting. Some students have hard time understanding my handwriting. I kind of try to make it more legible and I avoid using big words and difficult vocabulary. So, they can understand better.

Reference 3 – 10.36% coverage

T7: For the schools like this (private language schools), we (language school teachers) have a certain amount of subject content to cover in every class. For example, if you rely on the assigned/guided tasks only, we cannot instruct the students well. We sometimes have to ignore the curriculum to truly help students to write better.

T7: The work we have to deal with has to be lessened so that we can focus more on meaningful feedback, discussing what they have written. I think that's going to be helpful.

Researcher: So, you mean that the curriculum of the institution or the policy of the institution affects your feedback approach?

T7: Yes.

Researcher: Oh okay. I see.

T7: I heard a lot of other schools have similar cases to this. They just outsource the written feedback in student writing. So, somebody in countries like the Philippines or India, they do it … they send the feedback via emails so that students can check the error corrections on the internet. But many students don't understand what their comment mean. So, what's the point??

In Excerpt 5.6, T7 made a few points about the current context of EFL writing in a private language school based on his experience. Regarding *Reference 2,* he seemed to be concerned with mutual understanding between the teacher and student when providing corrective feedback. For better and clearer communication, he said he would like to meet with students to talk about their problems. He reported that he makes efforts to deliver simple and clear explanations on the errors in papers using easy vocabulary and neat handwriting.

Also, as shown in *Reference 3*, he pointed out teachers' time constraints due to their workload and limited amount of time in private language schools. Consequently, teachers do not seem to have enough time to read students' papers thoroughly and scope all the errors comprehensively. In response, a few major private institutions hire special feedback providers from the Philippines for their business purposes, who deliver electronic feedback via email. However, he expressed doubts about such feedback because the comments (written in English) provided by outsourcing companies abroad cannot help students improve their writing as they lack sufficient English proficiency to understand such comments, which may be full of technical terms and complex vocabulary.

5.10 Teachers' perceptions of their own feedback approaches (RQ2)

RQ2. What are Korean EFL secondary school teachers' perceptions concerning their written corrective feedback?

This section presents the findings concerning the teachers' perceptions of their own corrective feedback approaches. Two key themes from the typology of feedback specified in Ellis (2009; cf. Table 3.1 in Chapter 3) were used – the selective focus of the feedback and the explicitness of feedback – to examine how teachers differ in the provision of feedback and why.

5.10.1 Focus of feedback

First, on the question of teachers' perceptions with regard to the focus of corrective feedback in student writing, the findings were mixed, and the reasons also varied. In terms of content-focused and form-focused feedback, more teachers (T2, T5, T7) reported focusing on content. However, half of the respondents (T1, T3, T6, T8) stated that they usually provide corrective feedback on both grammatical and content-related errors in student papers.

Table 5.6 Mixed responses on focus of feedback in student writing

Grammar	Content	Both
T4	T2, T5, T7	T1, T3, T6, T8

In the case of form-focused feedback, only T4 said she concentrates on linguistic errors as she believes that linguistic aspects comprise the basic skills that L2 students must learn in writing. She explained the reason for her approach as shown in Excerpt 5.7 below, namely her view that learners' first language structure may affect their ability to compose sentences and this issue has to be treated first so that they do not repeat the same mistakes.

Excerpt 5.7 Supporting response for form-focused feedback

T4:

I usually focus on grammar comments, verb tense, word choice and sentence structure … I focus on such areas in error correction because I think those are the basic things that L2 students need to learn. Most students make the same mistakes by writing the sentence structure based on Korean grammar rules.

On the other hand, in the case of content-focused feedback, the teachers considered the clear delivery of students' ideas on writing topics to be more important, as clearly demonstrated in their explanations in Excerpt 5.8 below.

Excerpt 5.8 Supporting responses for content-focused feedback

T2:

I usually focus on organization, sentence structure and content/ideas… I think these errors are the ones that make the big picture of the writing… Grammatical mistakes will always occur because they are not native English speakers, but as long as they have the ability to get their idea/content across clearly in a well-structured and well-organized way, their writing should be considered well-written.

T5:

I focus on organization (content), expressions and sentence structure so that students can present their ideas more briefly in an appropriate way.

T7:

For the secondary students, they are not good at kind of composing the perfect structures and perfect sentences. I pay more attention to their general ideas on the topic and how they kind of lead the story so that they can make it understandable to most readers. So, I pay more attention to the kind of content.

In particular, in the case of T2, her definition of appropriate feedback is determined by whether students can deliver what they want to say in writing. Thus, she believed that giving feedback on aspects of content can help students improve their EFL writing, rather than focusing on minor grammatical errors that frequently occur in EFL students' papers. She was one of the two teachers who provided actual feedback samples for student essay papers. The results cross-checked with her actual feedback practice are presented in section 5.11.

Finally, the responses from the remaining four teachers (T1, T3, T6 and T8) showed they focused on both content and form-related errors in students' papers. They provided varying explanations for employing both form and content approaches in marking student papers. Two of the teachers said they use different approaches for different levels of student writing ability. In particular, T3 believed that adequate grammar knowledge and content organization are important elements in ensuring readers understand the author's ideas and messages. She also explained how she applied such approaches in providing feedback on her students' papers. As shown in Excerpt 5.9, in her case, the criteria for selecting and applying specific approaches are due to students' different target levels in L2 writing development based on their age, such as sentence formation or building a logical structure in an essay.

Excerpt 5.9

T3:

I have a system though. I correct grammatical errors and give comments/written feedback for content suggestions (i.e. for clarity, logicality, etc.). Younger students mostly struggle with forming sentences with correct structures and conveying meaning through their sentences. Older students mostly struggle with building logic and reasoning in their writing.

As shown in Excerpt 5.10, other teachers' accounts presented what they select in correcting students' errors. For example, T3 and T8 were in agreement concerning writing proficiency affecting their feedback approaches chosen for error correction. Both teachers asserted that at the basic level, students need more grammar-related feedback, while content/organization feedback is needed for advanced writing students. T8 noted that for beginners she focuses on simple grammatical or vocabulary errors, whereas for advanced students she provides feedback on the logical flow of their ideas, as well as the sentence structures throughout the paper. However, her sample feedback analysis (see Figure 5.11 and 5.12) illustrates that she does not apply her 'system' of corrective feedback exactly as she described it in the interview (see Appendix 10).

Excerpt 5.10

T1:

Okay then, it is mostly mechanical errors, or vocabulary errors … or maybe organizational problems as well. To continue with what I said, when I give them full marking, I correct every mistake I see in their paper.

T3:

I focus on frequent and major grammatical mistakes which especially affect the delivery of meaning and weaken the quality of the paper. Then, I focus on the organization of the paper. The main goal of the writing is to convey meaning, so without adequate grammar and sentence structure, as well as content organization, it is impossible to make people understand what the paper wants to talk about.

T6:

In my case, I focus on both the organization of ideas and grammar. I think organizing with creative ideas is important and I want to let students express their opinions freely.

T8:

For the basic level, if they have a basic level of English proficiency, I just focus on simple vocabulary or simple grammar. But if I look at the students' writings at an especially advanced level, I usually go into it quite deep, into the logical flow of their writing, and at the same time, the structure, the whole structure of their sentences.

5.10.2 Explicitness of feedback

In Part I, students' preference in terms of the explicitness of teachers' corrective feedback was prevalently for indirect corrective feedback (identifying errors without correction), which they considered helped them to improve their writing ability by preventing them from making the same mistakes in the future. Their teachers were then asked how they correct students' errors in writing in terms of the degree of explicitness. As seen in Excerpt 5.11, the findings were mixed depending on teachers' personal teaching experience. In the teacher interviews, only T7 expressed a preference for using indirect feedback while the rest employed a mixture of the two types of feedback approach.

Excerpt 5.11 Mixed responses on explicitness of feedback in student writing

T2:

I underline and give the correct forms of almost all the errors I see in the papers. I also give comments at the end, or marginal areas in the paper.

T7:

When many of the students have a hard time understanding it, I personally approach them and explain my comments about what they wrote. But pretty often, I don't have enough time to instruct them on a one-on-one basis.

T8:

Oh, it depends on the student levels. For those whose level is basic, I use simple handwritten feedback focusing on their vocabulary and grammar. I don't really fix a lot. But for advanced level students, sometimes, I sometimes fix all over, almost everything about their structures and sentence errors. In this case, I just type myself and I give them a so-called 'perfect essay'.

5.11 Teachers' feedback practices in a real classroom (RQ4)

RQ4. What corrective feedback practices do Korean EFL teachers implement in their writing classes?

The following section presents the findings from document analysis of the teachers' actual approaches used in their feedback samples on the basis of two teacher participants, T2 and T8. The findings are outlined in correspondence to their accounts in the interviews concerning their beliefs regarding corrective feedback approaches. Excerpt 5.12 shows how T2 perceives she provides corrective feedback on students' written papers. In her case, she combines direct correction with marginal comments at the end.

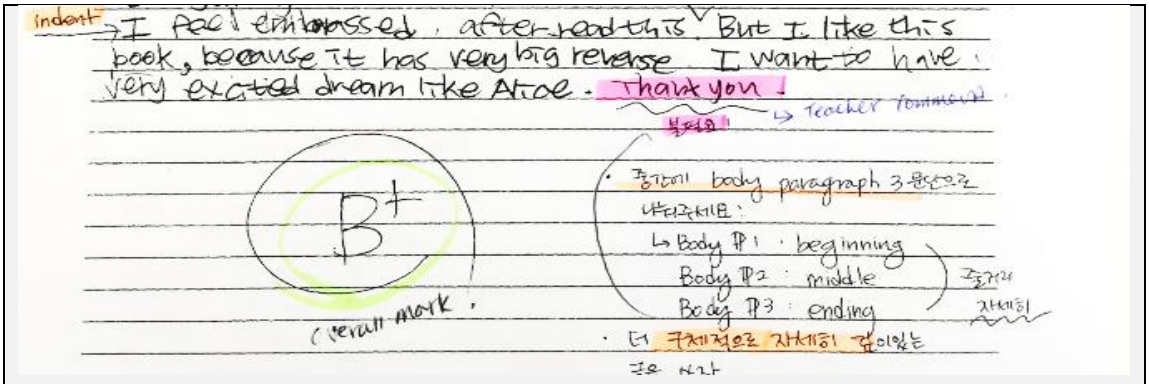
Excerpt 5.12

T2:

I underline and give the correct forms of almost all the errors I see in the papers. I also give comments at the end, or marginal areas in the paper.

During the interview, she seemed confident in providing her feedback on students' papers and having her own marking criteria as she had EFL writing experience as both a learner and a teacher. However, her essay samples did not exactly match her account. Figure 5.9 shows her actual approach to the focus of corrective feedback,

demonstrating the application of her response above. She provided mainly marginal comments at the end of paper and commented on what should have been done or what should be done next time, such as the indentation of paragraphs and the use of a five-paragraph essay format. Such comments occurred consistently in the 26 samples of feedback she provided, regardless of the students' writing proficiency. In terms of the amount of the feedback, she did not correct all the errors shown in students' writing papers. She provided feedback selectively as a form of marginal comments, with a grade based on her own criteria (see Appendix 9).



Translation of T2's feedback (comment)

1. Use your eraser when correcting words. It is really hard to read your writing. I've told you to type the essay.
2. I can't understand what you wanted to say in your writing.
3. Remember to write in five-paragraph essay format (e.g. Paragraph 1 – introduction, Paragraph 2 – body paragraph [beginning], Paragraph 3– body paragraph [middle], Paragraph 4 – body paragraph [ending], Paragraph 5 – conclusion).
4. Indent your paragraphs next time.

Figure 5.9 Example of T2's content-focused feedback

With regard to the explicitness of feedback, Figure 5.10 shows how she provided combined feedback comprising direct correction and marginal comments on a student's book report. According to her feedback samples, she marked errors selectively by underlining errors, providing the correct forms and then making overall comments at the end of the essay with a grade. In the case below, she focused only on a few errors, such as underlining and capitalizing the book title, indentation and vocabulary choice, although there were more errors in the paper.

Selective direct correction and marginal comments

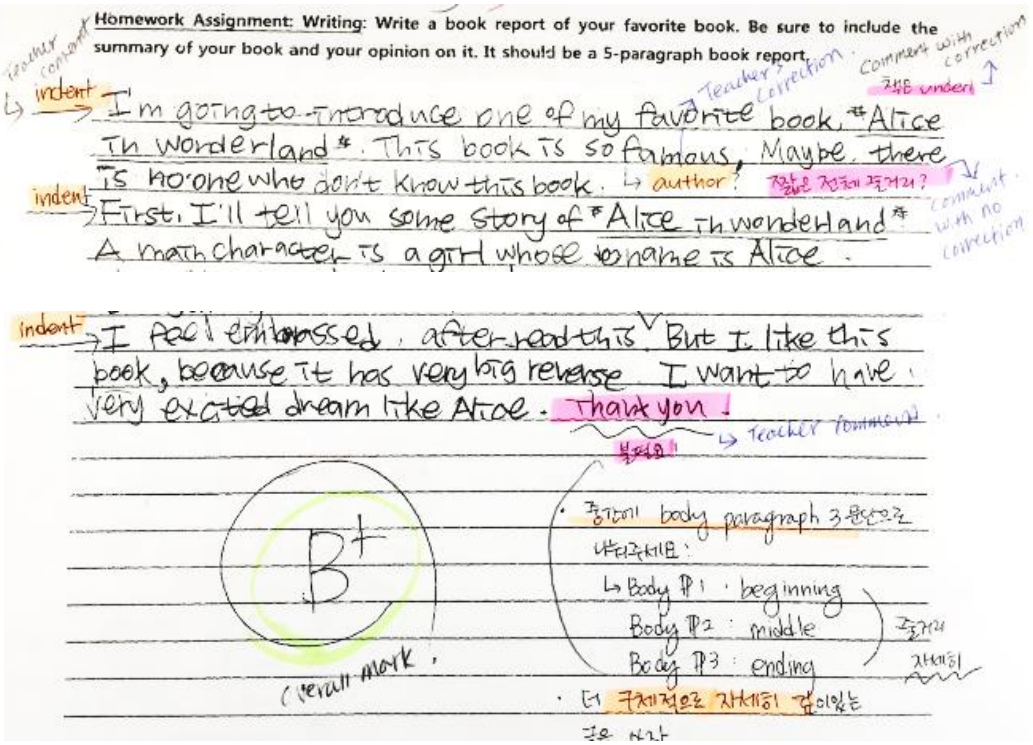


Figure 5.10 Example of T2's direct feedback on student essays

The following discussion relates to T8. The findings from T8's essay correction samples depict the gap between T8's principles governing feedback approaches and her actual practice in the classroom. In the case of T8, Excerpt 5.13 below illustrates the principles that she expressed concerning corrective feedback approaches in the interview. She mentioned the importance of students' EFL writing proficiency in applying corrective feedback to errors and introduced her methods of error correction in her writing classroom. She also had years of experience in learning and teaching EFL and was another teacher who provided feedback samples for this study.

Excerpt 5.13

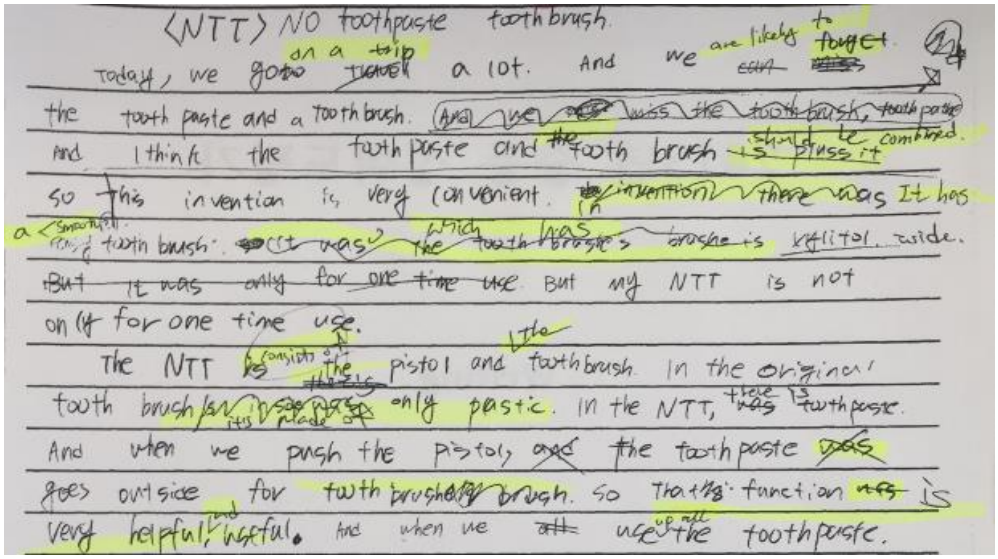
T8:

Oh, it depends on the student levels. For those whose level is basic, I use simple handwritten feedback focusing on their vocabulary and grammar. I don't really fix a lot. But for advanced level students, sometimes, I sometimes fix all over, almost everything about their structures and sentence errors. In this case, I just type myself and I give them a so-called 'perfect essay'. Then I made them copy the sample essay or corrected essay. So, they can learn what could have been done (in their essays) or what could have been a better piece of writing.

For beginners, she said that she does not correct much. She believed that it would be more helpful to give direct hand-written correction to the beginners' papers as they usually make mistakes in grammar or vocabulary level. However, for advanced level, she said that she uses comprehensive corrective feedback (correct all the errors in the paper) to give students a chance to see a well-written model essay as she called 'perfect essay'. Then, she asked her students to copy the model essay and to compare their own work to the improved one. She believed that the EFL students can improve their writing through the provision of examples. The model essay for advanced level students can be interpreted as a suggestion that students are to memorize the formula without considering other options for improving their writing. This approach may have been introduced and used in many private language schools in South Korea due to the Korean secondary school students' lack of writing experience at school. Also, this method may be considered a way of getting a better score in writing exams, particularly for high-stakes tests such as IELTS and TOEFL.

After the interview, I investigated T8's actual feedback on students' essays concerning imaginative inventions. As most of her feedback on 26 students' written papers was addressed in a similar way, I selected two samples showing the distinctive feedback approaches for beginners and advanced students and typed the examples for greater clarity. The examples are shown in Figures 5.11 and 5.12 below.

A1. Example of T8's feedback for a beginner student



A2. Typed version

(1) go on a trip (2) are likely to gorget

Today, we go to travel a lot. And we miss the tooth brush, tooth paste

(3) the (4) the tooth brush and the tooth paste should be combined

And I think the tooth paste and tooth brush is pluss it So this invention is very convenient. In

(5) it has a smooth tooth brush which has Xylitol.

invention there was easy tooth brush. It was the tooth brush's brush is Xylitol wide. But it was only

(6) crossed out (7) The NTT consists of the pistol and the tooth brush

for one time use. But my NTT is not only for one time use. The NTT is the pistol and tooth brush. In

(8) it is made of plastic (9) there is

the original tooth brush's inside was only plastic. In the NTT, was toothpaste. And when we push

(10) crossed out (11) The (12) crossed out (13) (11)crossed out

the pistol, and the tooth paste was goes outside for tooth brush's brush. So that's function

(14) is (15) and (16) use up all the tooth paste

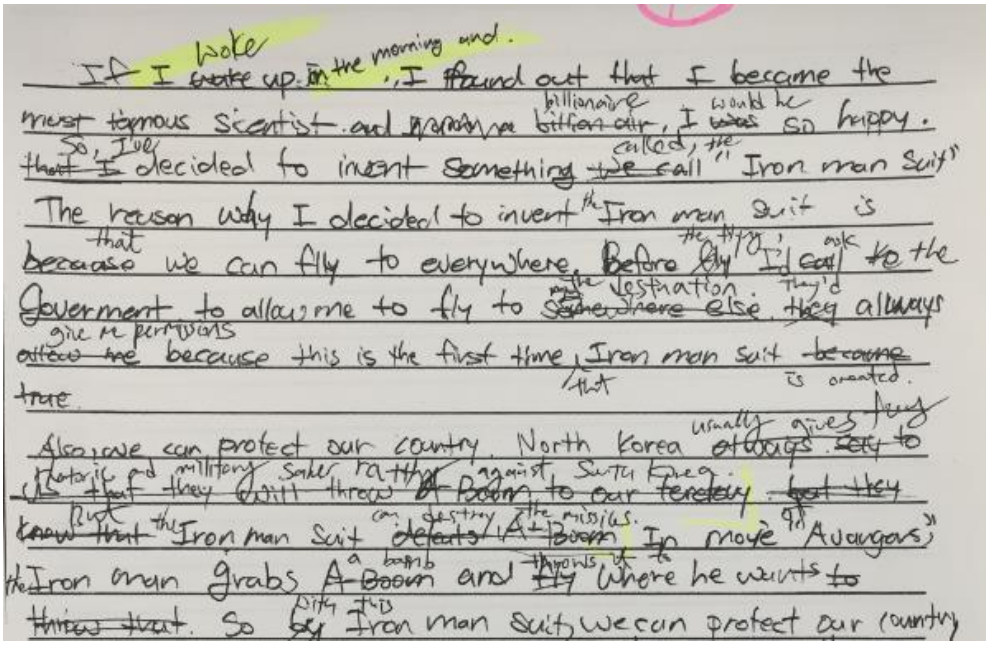
was very helpful, useful. And when we all use the tooth paste. We can re-use the NTT. And we

(17) as it (18) is

don't miss the tooth paste. And it was very light. Because the plastic is heavier than tooth paste.

Figure 5.11 Excerpt of T8's corrective feedback on a beginner student paper

B1. Example of T8's feedback for an advanced student



B2. Typed version

(1)woke

If I wake up in the morning and, I found out that I became the most famous scientist and I was a

(2)billionaire (3)Would be (4). So I've decided (5)called, the

billionair, I was so happy that I decided to invent something we call 'Iron man Suit'. The reason

(6) the (7)that (8)flying (9) I'd ask

why I decided to invent 'Ironman Suit' is because we can fly to everywhere. Before fly I call to the

(10) give me permissions

government to allow me to fly to somewhere else. They always allow me because this is the first

(11)that (12) is created

time 'Ironman Suit' became true.

(13)usually gives fiery rhetoric and military saher rattle against South Korea

Also, we can protect our country. North Korea always say to us that they will throw a boom to our

(14) the (15) can destroy the missiles

teretory, but ~~they know that~~ 'ironman suit' defeats a boom. In movie, 'Avengers' the iron man grabs

(16) bomb (17)thorws (18)crossed out (19)with this

a boom and fly where he wants ~~to throw that~~. So by Ironman suit, we can protect our country.

Figure 5.12 Excerpts from T8's corrective feedback on an advanced student paper

Above all, both examples in Figures 5.11 and 5.12 show that T8 provided a great deal of corrective feedback compared to T2 (see Figure 5.9). However, there appear to be discrepancies between T 8's account in the interview and her actual practice. There are

two major differences. First, for the beginner (Figure 5.11) T8 corrected all the errors encountered in the student's paper, which refutes her account that she marks only simple vocabulary and grammatical errors. The red highlights show grammar correction and the blue highlights concern content-related reformulated sentences (see Appendix 10 for the full version of the essay paper). Second, for the advanced student she used the same approach as for the beginner. The only difference shown in Figure 12 is that she corrected grammatical errors (highlighted in red) such as tenses, articles and word choice. Unlike her earlier account, she did not provide the typed version of the corrected essay for her advanced student. The last important point to be made about T8's handwritten feedback is her unclear handwriting. In some cases (e.g. no. 13, example B2 typed version of Figure 5.12), her writing was illegible, and it was difficult to type up her feedback: indeed, the words shown in blue were guessed. This may affect students' understanding concerning how to improve their writing in further drafts.

Again, such discrepancies were also found in the analysis of her approach concerning the focus of feedback. T8 seemed to argue that students' language proficiency matters. She reported that for beginners, she focuses on simple grammatical or vocabulary errors, whereas for advanced students she provides feedback on the logical flow of their ideas, as well as the sentence structures throughout the paper. However, her sample feedback analysis, as shown in Figure 5.13, illustrates that she does not apply her 'belief system' of corrective feedback exactly as she described it in the interview (see Appendix 10). As Figure 5.13 shows, the parts highlighted in red and in boxes indicate grammar-focused feedback, whereas the blue boxes are all content-related feedback examples. She provided the beginner student with both grammar and content feedback evenly, while for the advanced student she concentrated mainly on grammatical errors (e.g. articles, tenses, vocabulary choice, prepositions, etc.), which shows a discrepancy between her perceived and actual approaches to corrective feedback provision. Further discussion of her feedback samples is presented in Chapter 6

A. Example for a beginner student

(1) go on a trip

(2) are likely to gorget

Today, we go to travel a lot. And we miss the tooth brush, tooth paste

(3) the

(4) the tooth brush and the tooth paste should be combined

And I think the tooth paste and tooth brush is pluss it So this invention is very convenient. In

(5) it has a smooth tooth brush which has Xylitol.

invention there was easy tooth brush. It was the tooth brush's brush is Xylitol wide. But it was only

(6) crossed out

(7) The NTT consists of the pistol and the tooth brush

for one time use. ~~But my NTT is not only for one time use.~~ The NTT is the pistol and tooth brush. In

(8) it is made of plastic

(9) there is

the original tooth brush's inside was only plastic. In the NTT, was toothpaste. And when we push

(10) crossed out

(11) The

(12) crossed out

(13),(11)crossed out

the pistol,~~and~~ the tooth paste was goes outside for tooth brush's brush. So that's function

(14) is

(15) and

(16) use up all the tooth paste

was very helpful, useful. And when we all use the tooth paste. We can re-use the NTT. And we

(17) as it

(18) is

don't miss the tooth paste. And it was very light. Because the plastic is heavier than tooth paste.

B. Example for an advanced student

(1)woke

If I wake up in the morning and, I found out that I became the most famous scientist and I was a

(2)billionaire

(3)Would be

(4). So I've decided

(5)called, the

billionair, I was so happy that I decided to invent something we call 'Iron man Suit'. The reason

(6) the

(7)that

(8)flying

(9) I'd ask

why I decided to invent 'Ironman Suit' is because we can fly to everywhere. Before fly I call to the

(10) give me permissions

government to allow me to fly to somewhere else. They always allow me because this is the first

(11)that

(12) is created

time 'Ironman Suit' became true.

(13)usually gives fiery **rhetoric** and military **saber** rattle against South Korea

Also, we can protect our country. North Korea always say to us that they will throw a boom to our

(14) the

(15) can destroy the missiles

teretory but ~~they know that~~ 'ironman suit' defeats a boom. In movie, 'Avengers' the iron man grabs

(16) bomb

(17)thorws

(18)crossed out

(19)with this

a boom and fly where he wants ~~to throw that~~. So by Ironman suit, we can protect our country.

Figure 5.13 Analysis of T8's comprehensive direct feedback on student essays

5.12 Summary of qualitative analysis

The main findings from the analysis of the teacher interviews and their corrective feedback samples indicate that Korean EFL teachers believe that appropriate corrective feedback is essential for students' writing development. The findings of teacher interviews indicated that they hold varying beliefs regarding feedback approaches and that their classroom practices are constructed based on the complexities of such beliefs as well as specific contextual factors. The teachers in this study used different approaches based on their own instructional principles concerning corrective feedback. On the issue of the focus of their feedback on students' writing, although the results showed mixed responses, four of the eight teachers reported that they focus on both content and grammar as areas for improvement. Next, on the question of how explicitly feedback is provided, only one teacher (T7) used indirect feedback, while the rest employed a mixture of different types of approach.

Contrasting the findings here to those from the student questionnaire, in which the majority of students preferred indirect feedback to other approaches, the majority of teachers (T1, T2, T4, T5, T6) corrected all errors in their students' papers directly. The others employed a combination of different approaches (direct, indirect, marginal comments, model essays) based on their own experience, for example of the students' age group and English proficiency level. They also explained why they prefer to use different approaches when marking student papers. In two cases (T2 and T8), it was possible to compare the teachers' interview accounts and actual feedback samples. Interestingly, the teachers' feedback samples did not exactly match their reports on feedback approaches in the interviews. For example, regardless of students' need for improvement (e.g. proficiency or frequent errors), each teacher used the same approaches for the student essay papers: T2 used selective direct feedback primarily concerning content and then summarized the feedback in the form of marginal comments at the end; T8 used comprehensive direct feedback for both content and grammar with underlining and crossing out. Overall, in terms of their feedback approaches, it is possible tentatively to identify discrepancies between the findings from the teacher interviews and their actual feedback approaches used in classrooms; also, there were individual differences between the teachers in terms of how they provided corrective feedback in response to different students' pieces of writing. In

Chapter 6, I discuss the above findings in relation to RQ1–4 and extend the discussion to encompass a range of pedagogical implications of the main findings.

Chapter 6: Discussion

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a more detailed discussion related to the four research questions in sections 6.1 to 6.5. The contributions of the study are then presented in section 6.6. The chapter concludes with a brief summary of the main themes in section 6.7.

The discussion aims to provide a broad understanding of the stated beliefs underpinning Korean EFL teachers' corrective feedback approaches, a detailed interpretation of the eight teachers' perceptions of corrective feedback and the critical factors affecting their feedback approaches to the correction of errors in students' written work. Also, critical elements with regard to how Korean EFL secondary students perceived their teachers' corrective feedback in relation to their teachers' perceptions are discussed. The discussion ends with possible reasons for a lack of correspondence between teachers' beliefs and actual practice in the hagwon context. In what follows, I discuss important aspects of the findings related to RQ1, RQ2, RQ3 and RQ4 (see section 1.5) in turn, comparing them to other studies on teachers' corrective feedback reviewed in Chapter 3.

6.2 Research Question 1

RQ1. What are the stated beliefs of Korean EFL secondary school teachers with regard to written feedback?

This section is to address RQ1 by discussing critical elements with respect to teachers' stated beliefs concerning written corrective feedback. The question set out to investigate eight Korean EFL secondary school teachers' beliefs underpinning their feedback approaches, understanding the complex links between the principles governing their decisions on feedback approaches (Borg, 1998, 1999, 2011; Breen et al., 2001). The findings suggest that teachers' beliefs are a major influencing factor in their feedback provision and may influence the formation of teachers' perceptions concerning their approach to feedback.

As previously stated (see section 3.6.6), teachers' beliefs are closely linked to their thinking and acting. Interpreting the findings of this study provides support for the claim that understanding the possible factors affecting teachers' beliefs is key to understanding their teaching practice (Borg, 1998, 1999, 2011; Breen et al., 2001; Lortie, 1975). Considering such relationships, understanding teachers' beliefs is highly important for improving their teaching practices in terms of the provision of corrective feedback (Clark & Peterson, 1986; Johnson, 1994).

Exploring the findings of the present study, teachers' belief systems are highly individualized, complex and context-dependent (Borg, 1998, 1999; Breen et al., 2001). The major insights provided by this study relate to discrepancies between teachers' beliefs about 'what they do' and 'what happens in their actual feedback practice'. In what follows, I discuss the findings in terms of how the teachers' beliefs and students' perceptions concerning corrective feedback approaches were related and how these affected the teachers' corrective feedback practice in the classrooms in the Korean private language school context.

6.2.1 Students' attitudes to self-editing

One of the recurring themes in the teacher interviews was students' attitudes towards self-editing. To achieve improvements in writing, students' engagement in self-editing using their teachers' feedback is an essential part of their learning – even more so than the feedback itself (Conrad & Goldstein, 1999; Goldstein, 2004; 2006; Hyland, F., 2000; Hyland & Hyland, 2006; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010; Tardy, 2006). Through editing, students can learn by employing various strategies to understand the teachers' corrective feedback given on their writing.

However, in the *hagwon* context, a significant problem is that some students were not motivated to do the revision work after submitting an assignment as they believed it could be done when they had time for it, but it was difficult for them to find time for such tasks as they were consumed with other priorities at school. The results of the student survey confirmed that the majority of students do not tend to use the feedback given for revision. Only 11% of the students answered that they always read the corrective feedback and revised their drafts. This was also illustrated in the teacher interviews. Excerpts 6.1, 6.2 and 6.3 highlight some teachers' concerns regarding

unmotivated students' level of engagement in self-editing, which they believed could lead to improvements in the students' writing ability.

Excerpt 6.1

T2: Those students who do not even read our corrections/comments don't really get the chance to improve their writing skills… Those who don't make revisions DO NOT make revisions no matter what the teachers tell them.

Excerpt 6.2

T3: I believe that as they rewrite/revise, they can rethink about what they wrote and apply the newly learned skills in their next piece of writing. However, since it is not mandatory, some students don't do that. I occasionally check their writing practice books to see if they have done it. Students who have followed my guidelines and revised their draft absolutely show a difference and improvement in writing.

Excerpt 6.3

T4: They are not willing to come here (class) to learn things. They just come to school because their parents force them to. In other words, they are not here to learn. Only a few of them are energetic and want to learn things.

T2's and T3's accounts primarily concerned students' low levels of engagement in self-editing and they doubted whether students could improve their writing only by receiving corrective feedback without self-editing activity. Interestingly, T4 emphasized not only the problem of self-editing, but also the students' zero motivation to attend classes: he believed that his students were forced to attend class by their ambitious parents.

To maximize the benefits of corrective feedback for such students, teachers need to enhance their use of prompts that can increase the students' engagement in their own learning (Ferris, 2006, 2011; Hyland, F., 2000; Tardy, 2006). Regarding motivation, students differ from each other in many respects. It is important to take individual learner characteristics into consideration to help optimize their learning, rather than grouping students into categories based on their linguistic ability. The results of this study support the claims made in the literature. It is not students' proficiency levels that determine their motivational characteristics: these are related to their individual characteristics. For instance, one student simply kept skipping assignments and failing to provide self-edited drafts, whereas another always tried to accomplish the tasks given and submit final edited drafts after feedback. Excerpt 6.4 shows an example of

teachers' concerns about their unmotivated students. T3 pointed out the specific classroom context, in which the problem of students' ignoring the submission of writing homework cannot be mended or improved as the students and the teachers are aware of the voluntary nature of any classwork and homework in *hagwons*.

Excerpt 6.4

T3: Since it is not mandatory, some students don't do that. The difficulty is that if students simply ignore all the corrections/suggestions/comments and don't apply them to their revisions or next writing draft, the feedback becomes useless.

The next excerpt from T4 shows the importance of educating students to raise awareness of the importance of self-editing and autonomous learning.

Excerpt 6.5

T4: Students also should be well motivated and trained for the whole writing process, so that they can voluntarily revise and edit after drafting. Planning and drafting are just the beginning part. To complete the writing task, revising and editing are necessary. Instead of teachers providing comments/suggestions all the time, students should learn to do them on their own. This also should be a part of teacher's lesson.

T4's account in Excerpt 6.5 relates to the difficulties that teachers often experience in the classroom. She asserted that students' motivation is low and teachers also need to teach them how important self-editing is for their success in improving their writing.

To facilitate the students' engagement in self-editing, teachers' feedback should prompt the students to self-correct by tailoring their approaches to the learners' developmental level (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994). Rather than just providing a general comment addressed at everyone in the class, teachers need to focus on how they can overcome the obstacles and how they might teach adaptively. This also involves other stakeholders developing instructional policies based on students' individual characteristics, including readiness, preferences and interest in relation to learning and feedback.

6.2.2 Students' insufficient L2 writing proficiency

Another factor influencing teachers' beliefs regarding corrective feedback approaches concerned students' actual English writing ability. Teachers' corrective feedback must be tailored dynamically to different purposes and different stages of writing processes (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). The teachers' feedback samples and interviews showed that

the actual corrective feedback approaches to the students' papers varied considerably. Based on the teacher interviews, students' proficiency was considered one of the critical factors prompting teachers to make certain decisions concerning how to mark students' papers. These teachers pointed out difficulties in accommodating students' individual differences in relation to language proficiency and the application of different approaches. Excerpts 6.6, 6.7 and 6.8 illustrate teachers' criteria regarding students' proficiency, highlighting in particular how low proficiency students' writing influences teachers' selection and the use of corrective feedback approaches. This will be discussed with a comparison of their beliefs and their actual feedback samples in the following section.

Excerpt 6.6

T2: It's just that *beginners tend to make more grammatical mistakes* and advanced students tend to have better writing content. I provide my feedback in both English and Korean. But I found out that most students tend not to read my English feedback. Especially with beginners, they don't really understand feedback written in English, so they prefer my feedback in Korean.

Excerpt 6.7

T4: Korean students generally make common errors. Most beginners make spelling and grammar errors. But the most advanced level students make phrasing and structural errors.

Excerpt 6.8

T8: Oh, it depends on the student levels. For those whose level is basic, I use simple handwriting feedback focusing on their vocabulary and grammar. I don't really fix a lot. But for advanced level, sometimes, I sometimes fix all over, almost everything about their structures and sentence errors. In that case, I just type myself, and I give them a so-called 'perfect essay'. Then I made them copy the sample essay or corrected essay. So, they can learn what could have been done (in their essays) or what could have been better writing.

The teachers believed that the beginner students usually make errors related to grammar or vocabulary, while the advanced students make content or structure-related errors. However, contradictory to the teachers' beliefs, the findings from students' surveys revealed that the Korean secondary EFL students, both beginners and advanced students, wanted to receive *indirect grammar-focused feedback*, irrespective of their different proficiencies.

Chandler (2003) found that student proficiency did not make any difference to preferences for teachers' feedback approaches and irrespective of their proficiency levels, the tertiary level ESL students preferred to receive direct feedback to improve their accuracy. In Lee's (2008) study, Chinese secondary school EFL students preferred to receive comprehensive direct feedback due to their lack of linguistic ability. Similar to this, another study on Japanese tertiary EFL students presented strong preferences for detailed direct feedback that addressed both content and grammar errors in other studies (Elwood & Bode, 2014).

It is clear that there are different findings for different student groups and one simple principle suggested for teachers is that they need to seek ways to apply feedback approaches systematically in accordance with their students' needs. Thus, the results of this study suggest that teachers' judgement and diverse approaches towards students' variances are crucial in corrective feedback provision. They need to seek ways of narrowing the gaps between students' expectations and the practical issues that face them in feedback practice. To achieve this, teachers need sufficient training and practice in corrective feedback provision, and this should be prepared and supported by institutions and stakeholders (Ellis, 2009; Hyland, F., 2000; Hyland & Anan, 2006; Lee, 2004). Also, more importantly, students need to understand the teachers' aims and intention behind the feedback, such as grammatical accuracy and problems with paragraph structure.

For example, there is no doubt that the classrooms in *hagwons* contain students with different levels of proficiency. The findings of this study demonstrate that the Korean EFL teachers had difficulties with understanding low proficiency students' written work. Excerpt 6.9 illustrates the issues surrounding the difficulties of delivering meaning in low proficiency students' written texts and teachers' difficulties in understanding what students have written.

Excerpt 6.9

T2: It's really hard to correct some of the beginner's papers because there are just too many grammatical mistakes. It is really hard to understand what they are trying to say. Because there are too many mistakes on their papers, I sometimes want to give up correcting every single grammatical mistake on their paper and just simply give some comments in the margin. But I feel the pressure that these students are the ones who need my grammatical corrections the most.

In Excerpt 6.9, the teacher's difficulty and frustration in guessing and interpreting students' possible intentions in the ungrammatical texts produced are apparent. Examining T2's feedback samples confirmed that she only used marginal comments due to her failure to understand the students' intended meanings (c.f. Figure 5.9, section 5.11). The comments were mainly about content and organization, despite the belief she expressed that it could be more helpful to give grammar feedback to such low-level students (Figure 5.9). Examining more of her feedback samples (Appendix 9), she gave only marginal comments about the basic essay structure to almost all the students, although she might also have wanted to provide feedback on grammatical errors. As she said, it seemed that she actually gave up correcting students' errors in the papers due to the pressure of the number of grammar corrections necessary. Her feedback approaches were greatly influenced by students' low proficiency in written work. However, consequently, this in turn affected students' perceptions of the *helpfulness of teachers' feedback.* For instance, in the student survey, the reasons for a few students' negative responses to the *helpfulness of feedback* included *the nature of overly general and impersonalized feedback*. Her students did not know why she gave the same comments to every student in class.

It is suggested that goal-oriented scaffolding (Woods et al., 1976) is a helpful approach when teachers are deciding on instructional methods. Corrective feedback must aim to enable L2 students to perform independently in future tasks, aiding them eventually to accomplish the targeted learning (Adair-Hauck & Donato, 1994; Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Donato, 1994; Lantolf & Aljaafreh, 1995). Accordingly, teachers need to examine the strengths and weaknesses of individual students and decide on their instructional intentions in relation to individual students' learning goals.

6.2.3 Linguistic differences between L1 (Korean) and L2 (English)

According to the teachers' interviews, another major factor influencing the beliefs of their corrective feedback approaches was the common errors made due to linguistic differences between the L1 (Korean) and the L2 (English). This particularly concerns classroom settings in which the teacher and students share the same L1 and similar learning experiences. For example, T2 and T8 were extremely sensitive to errors related to the difference between L1 and L2 when they marked their students' written papers. The need for teachers to adjust their instructional approaches to students' individual differences also applies to providing corrective feedback (e.g. Kim, T.Y.,

2009; Kim, Y.H., 2013). When L2 students received their teachers' corrective feedback, they could see the difference between what they knew and what they had produced in their written papers. In Excerpts 6.10 and 6.11, T2 and T8 claimed that teachers must understand both language systems and have a similar experience of learning L2 writing when they respond to students' errors caused by L1 interference.

First, T2 expressed her feelings about having difficulties with understanding the intended meaning of the text, particularly in beginner students' papers. If the teacher does not know what students want to say in faulty sentences, teachers' corrective feedback cannot be produced in response to such errors. Also, T8 highlighted how the differences between the two languages could affect EFL learners' writing performances negatively. She emphasized teachers' responsibility to predict the cause of the errors and provide correct forms for the faulty parts of the students' written work. The two teachers both agreed that there is ambiguity in terms of students' intentions in writing and asserted that teachers need to have adequate knowledge of both language systems and particularly the role of L1 (Korean) interference in L2 (English) writing. The teachers argued that such errors could be understood better by teachers who shared the same L1 with their students.

Excerpt 6.10

T2: I think Korean teachers or Korean-American teachers should teach writing to Korean students because their writing style is very Korean. Some word choices they make and some of their ideas are very Korean so that American teachers might not understand what they're trying to say. But if Korean teachers or Korean-American teachers read them, they will understand what they're trying to say and can correct them to sound more American English instead of Korean English.

Excerpt 6.11

T8: Korean structure and English structure are very different. Sometimes, only Korean EFL teachers can understand what they try to say. If they don't know Korean grammar or the Korean language, some foreign teachers might have a lot of difficulties understanding what students' are trying to talk about. But I'm a Korean teacher, so I can understand what they are talking about. Therefore, I try to give them good proper English sentences, not *Konglish* or broken English.

In relation to actual feedback approaches, T2 provided comments stating her difficulties in understanding the intended meaning in students' papers, whereas T8, as she explained above, corrected all the broken English sentences based on her assumptions about students' intended meaning. Due to the severity of the problems,

T2 gave overly general comments to most of the students, while T8 corrected almost all the errors in papers, attempting to provide students with perfect guidance for the next draft (see Appendix 9 and Appendix 10).

6.2.4 Marketization of English education in Korean EFL context

The investigation of teachers' beliefs indicates that their feedback approaches were influenced by the curriculum and the specific policies of the schools (*hagwons*). As previously mentioned (see section 2.3), the purpose of students attending *hagwons* is to receive additional lessons in academic subjects (Bray, 1999, 2006, 2009, 2010; Bray & Kwok, 2003; Chan & Bray, 2014; Lee et al., 2009). Such schools serve a role as supplementary education, following the curriculum of regular schooling. Their focus for secondary school students in Korea is on formulae for attaining a better grade in a context referred to as 'shadow education' (Bray, 1999, 2006, 2009; Chan & Bray, 2014; Lee et al., 2009). Despite the exclusion of English writing from the state school curriculum, as writing in English is used as part of the assessment of learners' language competence in high-stakes tests in Korea, students and parents demand tutoring to earn sufficient test scores in academic essay writing, rather than learning the rhetorical features and process of English writing. Thus, students perceive that their needs in terms of learning in private education are primarily related to mastering the necessary skills for produce an essay of five paragraphs, which is different from the goals of learning in the studies previously discussed (e.g. Chandler, 2003; Ferris & Roberts, 2001). Also, the owners of *hagwons* are concerned mainly with the profits they can make through their programmes.

Thus, in *hagwons* in Korea, the curriculum is mostly examination-oriented, and the subjects are usually selected by each school to ensure high enrolment rates. The programme developers in such schools focus on the needs of the majority of students in the market rather than focusing on long-term curriculum development. Thus, in the context of this study, the absence of a systematic curriculum, course rubrics and grading criteria may have affected teachers' feedback practices, but also little or no attention was paid to the actual needs of the students.

This was further confirmed T1's account in the interview. In terms of the characteristics of corrective feedback approaches in the *hagwon* context, T1 asserted that most *hagwons* do not focus on teaching the principles of English writing. In

general, profit tends to be uppermost in business owners' mind. Hence, the owners of the schools do not necessarily care what is taught or how it is taught as long as they make the business more profitable. They only hire teachers if a higher profit is guaranteed in any subject. T1's implied the marketization of writing programmes in *hagwons*, as expressed in Excerpt 6.12.

Excerpt 6.12

T1: I think in some places, writing is used in I'll say … not the most honest way … when some private schools or teachers advertise their programmes, they use writing as their 'magic stick'… They make some kind of advertisements that the central part of their programme is writing. But I know, from my experiences, their teaching is not the central part of writing instruction. Writing is not about the way they teach. There's no one answer for all. But sometimes, people use writing for such a purpose.

In Excerpt 6.12, T1 expressed his doubts concerning the efficacy of writing instruction and the curricula run by *hagwons* in Korea. The metaphor of the 'magic stick' (supposedly 'magic wand') may be interpreted as indicating that the *hagwons* take advantage of marketing their writing programmes as a flagship product, but actually the quality of such programmes may not meet the standards they advertise with regard to the process and method of instruction. Writing instruction is used only to advertise, generating higher profit margins, as English writing ability is considered a tool for students' academic and occupational success.

As argued by Hyland and Hyland (2006), without understanding the particular context in which learning, and teaching occur, it is difficult to determine why teachers are not very supportive of the positive value of written corrective feedback. Moreover, owing to the lack of English writing as a school subject, students' perceptions of instruction may differ based on their motivation for attending particular schools. Some may want to learn English writing as an asset for their future use, but others are only in the classroom to satisfy their ambitious parents. This phenomenon was explained as part of 'educational fever' in Chapter 2. For those who need to acquire high scores in high-stakes English proficiency tests (e.g. TOEFL, IELTS, etc.), there are few options when deciding where to go to learn writing. When students attend writing classes in *hagwons*, they are usually trained to memorize the model templates required by high-stakes writing tests in order to produce a similar text in their future tests (Bray, 1999, p. 72).

6.2.5 Teachers' prior experiences of learning and teaching

With regard to the teachers' beliefs of written corrective feedback, this study also suggests that teaching reflects teachers' own experiences of learning. As shown in Excerpt 6.13, T8 articulated her beliefs about how to become a better writer, which were formulated by her own experience as an EFL writer. She applied her experience in guiding her students through the process of corrective feedback provision. Her corrective feedback practice and the key principles underpinning it seemed to be based on her experiences of both learning and teaching. Importantly, as shown in Excerpt 6.16 below, she had never taken any particular writing course, but had to undertake writing as an EFL student. She understood the difficulties Korean EFL students have in learning English writing and she could provide what they need. The findings thus support the assertion that language teachers' own language learning experience is an important factor influencing their pedagogical practice (e.g. Borg, 1998, 1999; Breen et al., 2001; Pajares, 1992). She asserted that writing could be learned through a good model essay and improved by constant practice. Hence, providing corrective feedback is essential to improve EFL students' writing.

Excerpt 6.13

T8: Not really, I just practise English writing by myself. I never took any writing courses as a student. I was a student at a foreign language high school in Korea. At that time, we had to learn writing. At that time, yes, we practised writing.

… But it takes time definitely. I had been teaching in the same school for 2 years. And also, the other place for 2 years. Actually, I had chances to watch the students' progress for the 2 years. I definitely saw the results and they improved. But these are based on frequent writing practice, once a week or twice a week, I mean, they practised continuously.

… I give them a perfect sample essay, also they rewrite. But some of them they rewrite without thinking. They just simply copied the sample essay but still they learn, at least several structures. I see their improvement over the passage of time.

She considered that teachers should prepare students in explicit ways (see Appendix 10 for her approaches), as demonstrated by her checking of her students' progress. However, this approach contradicted the finding of the students' preference for indirect feedback. Also, it is reasonable to suggest that the benefit of corrective feedback is to provide goal-oriented assistance, suited to the different stages of the students' ZPDs, ultimately leading them to become independent language users (Conrad & Goldstein,

1999; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010; Tardy, 2006). Individual student differences must not be neglected when teachers apply instructional principles in corrective feedback provision.

6.3 Research Question 2

RQ2. What are Korean EFL secondary school teachers' perceptions concerning their written corrective feedback?

This section is to address RQ2 by discussing the nature of Korean EFL teachers' perceptions of their own feedback approaches and related issues of contextual factors in Korean EFL classrooms (e.g. Bray, 1999, 2006, 2009, 2010; Ferris, 1999; 2007; Goldstein, 2004, 2006; Hyland & Hyland 2006; Kim J-H., 2007; Lantolf & Thorne, 2007).

6.3.1 Nature of teachers' perceptions of their own feedback approaches

With regard to corrective feedback approaches, teachers' perceptions seemed to be influenced by several key factors surrounding their beliefs about the Korean EFL secondary school students' characteristics and the classroom context (Goldstein, 2004, 2006). The findings concerning teachers' beliefs about their corrective feedback approaches, as well as the influence on the formulation of such beliefs, are discussed in this section.

Cross-checking the responses from both students and teachers regarding the question, '*Is teachers' feedback helpful and necessary for students' writing improvement?*' generally show that the majority of the students agreed 'yes', but the teachers provided mixed responses (see section 5.9). In particular, one teacher (T4) was doubtful about the role of corrective feedback in the Korean EFL *hagwon* context. Her response emphasized the specific context of *hagwons*, where students are expected to learn techniques enabling better performance in their school examinations, which do not include an English writing test. In Korea, the goals of learning English are closely associated with successful entry to upper school or university admissions (Bray, 1999, 2006, 2009, 2010; Kim J-H., 2007). This was further confirmed by the remaining teachers, who took a neutral position on the question of the helpfulness of corrective feedback.

These teachers were initially uncertain how to answer. Later, they asserted that it all depends on the circumstances of the learning context. They considered that the helpfulness of corrective feedback is confined to circumstances in which students are highly motivated to learn and are willing to make use of their teachers' feedback in their following drafts by correcting errors. Although the teachers were not certain whether their feedback could help students to improve their writing ability, they emphasized that their feedback is 'meaningless' for those students who do not read their teachers' feedback.

In terms of the approach to feedback on writing, teachers provided mixed responses, unlike the students' preference which was predominantly for *indirect feedback* (see section 5.4.2). Some teachers said it is better to tailor their feedback based on students' needs and problems in English writing. When correcting students' errors in papers, some teachers preferred to use personalized feedback for different individual learners, combining different approaches of their own systems. Others said they used different methods with a focus on either content or grammar. Those teachers explained their own systems for applying different rules in marking students' papers: i) for the beginners, they focus on simple grammatical or vocabulary level errors; ii) for the advanced students, they focus on the logical flow of their ideas as well as the sentence structures throughout the paper.

The findings support the application of the two aforementioned concepts: scaffolding and the zone of proximal development (ZPD) (see section 3.3). Teachers need to apply goal-oriented scaffolding to provide instructional guidance, but be aware of individual students' ZPD, aimed at attaining long-term learning goals (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007). Although the teachers did not express a preference for any particular feedback approaches, this study supports the application of the Vygotskyan concept of the ZPD, learning through goal-oriented scaffolding, as it highlights the potential benefits of corrective feedback approaches which are dependent on the individual learners' developmental levels and their needs (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994). It is essential to note that teachers need to select the optimal approaches, considering the learners' individual differences and helping them to improve their learning within their different ZPDs (Adair-Hauck & Donato, 1994; Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Donato, 1994; Lantolf & Aljaafreh, 1995; Lantolf & Thorne, 2007).

Interestingly, teachers' reported beliefs about their choices of feedback approaches vary depending on their prior experiences. Investigating teachers' beliefs concerning feedback approaches, Hyland and Anan (2006) revealed that non-native English-speaking teachers tend to use comprehensive direct feedback when marking students' errors. They examined the error correction approaches of native English speaking EFL teachers, Japanese speaking EFL teachers and educated native English-speaking non-teachers and found that non-native speaking teachers tend to correct errors severely as they rely more on 'rule infringement rather than intelligibility in judging seriousness' (p. 509).

The results of this study are consistent with Hyland and Anan's (2006) finding. The majority of the Korean EFL teachers (6 out of 8 teachers) said they corrected almost all the errors in student papers based on their own criteria, irrespective of the level of English proficiency of the students. It is suggested that teachers need to be aware of the individual students' language abilities and L2 developmental levels when marking students' papers. Van Patten (1990) claimed that for early stages in language learning, input must easily be understood to help the students focus on their learning as part of the intake process. Thus, 'selectivity' and 'prioritization' in applying feedback approaches are necessary when responding to students' errors, rather than addressing all the errors made by the L2 students (Ferris, 2007, p. 170).

As previously noted in Chapter 5, there was a gap between the students' preferences and the teachers' corrective feedback practice in this study. A high percentage (57%) of the Korean secondary EFL students preferred *indirect feedback* (identifying the error types without correction), whereas the teachers (T1, T2, T4, T5, T6) believed that they mostly used *direct correction* (see section 5.10.2).

Also, the results of this study are contradictory to those of Lee's (2004) research on both students' and teachers' perceptions of corrective feedback approaches. In Lee's work, Chinese teachers provided direct feedback and indirect coded feedback, while their students wanted their teachers to use direct feedback approaches for all errors. The study revealed that some of the feedback provided was either unnecessary or inaccurate and some of the unnecessary teacher feedback was found to be misleading because it created errors as a result (p. 298).

In contrast, although Korean secondary school students wanted indirect feedback from their teachers, the Korean EFL teachers used direct correction. Furthermore, the Korean teachers' beliefs were not consistent with their actual feedback approaches (see section 5.11). They used direct feedback approaches, correcting errors severely, although they reported that they usually use mixed approaches depending on the students' proficiency levels. This may have been influenced by teachers' instructional styles and prior experiences and they had their own justifiable reasons for their own beliefs about corrective feedback (Borg, 1998; Breen et al., 2001; Lortie, 1975). Contextual factors such as institutional cultures and the goals of learning, as well as student variables, including students' proficiency levels, learning styles, and motivational levels may critically influence their attitudes towards learning. It is necessary to note that without understanding what gives rise to these complexities and taking into account such factors, teachers' corrective feedback approaches cannot be formulated in a desirable manner.

6.3.2 Need for instructional guidelines and training

The findings revealed that both learning and teaching experiences had a considerable impact on teachers' perceptions of their feedback approaches, particularly in the case of the private language school (*hagwon*) context (cf. section 5.10). The school investigated in this study did not provide the teachers with systematic guidelines on course rubrics and feedback standards, nor did it deliver adequate training for inexperienced writing teachers. The teachers' feedback samples and their reports on their feedback approaches in this study demonstrate that these varied and they used their own sets of standards when marking student papers (cf. section 5.11). Consequently, to some extent, the findings from the analyses cast doubt on Korean EFL teachers' competence in corrective feedback provision. In particular, if there are inaccuracies or inconsistencies in teachers' corrective feedback, it cannot be helpful in developing students' writing; indeed, it may mislead students (Ferris, 1999).

With regard to the issue of teachers' interest in in-house or external teacher training, all the teachers except for T1 said they were strongly interested in taking training courses if provided. For example, T4 directly pointed out her insufficient experience and competence in teaching English writing: 'I, myself have a limitation to teach English writing'. She said she would be willing to attend a training course if offered. However, T1 was hesitant about attending training after his working hours, responding

'I'd have to say … somewhat!' Such reactions are likely to result from particular individual differences, such as teachers' beliefs about their competence in EFL writing, as in T4's case, or simply their personalities and attitudes towards corrective feedback, as in T1's case.

6.4 Research Question 3

RQ3. What are Korean EFL secondary students' perceptions concerning their teachers' written corrective feedback?

This section is to address critical elements with regard to how Korean EFL secondary students perceived their teachers' corrective feedback in relation to their teachers' perceptions. The question set out to investigate Korean EFL students' needs and varying perceptions of the teachers' feedback approaches, understanding the various aspects underpinning their engagement in teachers' feedback (e.g. Baker & Montgomery, 2007; Chandler, 2003; Conrad & Goldstein, 1999; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Goldstein, 2004; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994; Hyland & Hyland, 2006; Lee, 1997, 2004, 2008; Tardy, 2006).

6.4.1 Students' perceptions of teachers' corrective feedback

In the classrooms investigated in this study, teachers provided written corrective feedback on students' essay papers submitted as homework. In many ways, the results confirm the findings of past research (Ashwell, 2000; Baker & Montgomery, 2007; Ferris, 1995, 1997; Goldstein, 2004; Hyland, F., 1998; Lee, 1997, 2004, 2008) in terms of how teachers' corrective feedback can be helpful in improving L2 students' writing. Situated in the Korean EFL secondary context, teachers must become more flexible and dynamic in tailoring their feedback approaches in response to their young students' needs as the process is viewed as a joint construction (Conrad & Goldstein, 1999; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010; Tardy, 2006). Also, it should be interpersonal, and the information given in feedback is effective only if it engages the student. The findings from the teacher interviews support this claim (cf. 5.9). The teachers' accounts emphasized that the benefits of their feedback are highly related to students' revisions and engagement as follow-up activities.

For L2 students, corrective feedback is helpful and students who receive teachers' corrective feedback produce significantly better revisions than those who do not

receive feedback (e.g. Diab, 2005; Ferris, 1995; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994; Lee, 2004, 2008). With regard to form-focused and content-focused feedback approaches, the results of this study reveal that Korean secondary school students prefer form-focused feedback rather than content-focused (see section 5.4.1). Students' preference for the focus of teachers' feedback has been well documented in the literature in a range of settings (Ashwell, 2000; Diab, 2005; Ellis et al., 2008; Ferris, 1995; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994).

Hedgcock and Lefkowitz (1994) investigated 247 beginner EFL and ESL students' preferences for teachers' feedback on certain aspects of writing at the tertiary level. They found that the EFL students preferred a focus on grammatical and lexical areas rather than on content and style, while the ESL students showed the opposite. One of the important insights in this study concerned how form-focused or content-focused feedback was perceived differently by the different populations of L2 students. Also, Saito's (1994) and Ferris's (1995) studies concerning students' attitudes towards feedback in ESL contexts showed the same results. Later, Ashwell (2000) also asserted that L2 students may rely on form-focused feedback more than content-focused feedback. In a similar vein, Diab (2005) revealed that L2 students believe that grammatical errors are more important and perceive form-focused feedback as an effective approach.

Looking at the results of the current study (cf. 5.4.1), a high percentage (73%) of Korean EFL secondary school students also preferred form-focused feedback (grammar and sentence structure) over content-focused (content and organization) feedback as they wanted to improve the accuracy of their writing. In contrast, only 18% of the students addressed stated that teachers need to focus on the 'essay structure' (content and organization) when marking their writing papers. Furthermore, considering teachers' reported beliefs about student proficiency factors, further investigation was conducted on possible relationship between students' proficiency levels and their preferences for the focus of teachers' corrective feedback, (see Tables 5.1 and 5.2) The response distributions were again closely examined in relation to the participants' proficiency levels (see section 5.6.1): beginners (group 1) vs. intermediate or above (group 2). The results showed that there were no significant differences between the proficiency groups in terms of the feedback focus on content or organization of the essay (Table 5.1). However, the results revealed that greater

proportion of students at the beginner stage prefer feedback focused on sentence structure and grammar (Table 5.2). It is difficult to explain why such different preferences for the feedback approaches emerged. One potential explanation is that the vast majority of beginner students are not likely to have taken writing classes for a long time and hence may not have felt confident about their linguistic accuracy. The young beginner students, potentially with less experience of English writing education, might have found it more helpful to have feedback focused on grammar and sentence level errors in their writing. Also, they expressed willingness to receive feedback from their teachers consistently in future instruction.

With regard to the focus of corrective feedback, teachers must be aware that L2 students have difficulties with both the form and rhetorical features of L2 writing (Diab, 2005). Students need to learn a particular set of aspects of knowledge regarding grammaticality, organization and style in L2 writing and teachers must contextualize their feedback. This can be explained in terms of young Korean EFL students still being in a developmental stage of constructing L2 grammatical and linguistic structures and thus they may consider that English grammar is important in producing English writing. Also, this phenomenon is consistent with the results of the teacher interviews showing the Korean EFL teachers' perceptions of the focus of teachers' corrective feedback (see section 5.11). In the teacher interviews, some teachers (T1, T3, T4) pointed out that their students perceived that their English was not proficient, and the teachers had difficulties with marking the student papers as the students' actual writing proficiency was not sufficiently adequate to produce correct sentence structures.

Next, the findings with regard to the *explicitness* of corrective feedback showed different results in contrast with the findings of past studies (e.g. Chandler, 2003; Lee, 2004). In Lee's (2004) study of students' and teachers' perceptions of different feedback approaches it was claimed that there was a gap between what students wanted and what their teachers did. In terms of student preferences for the explicitness of feedback, secondary school students in Hong Kong expected their teachers to correct all errors directly. In contrast, Korean EFL secondary school students preferred indirect feedback, indicating what kinds of errors they made in their papers. However, it must be noted that Lee's (2004) study was conducted in the state school context and in an

experimental setting, while this study was carried out in a natural classroom setting in the *hagwon* context.

Korean EFL students' preference for indirect feedback focusing on their grammatical errors can be explained as being related to a need for *internalization* (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 57). In the cycle of corrective feedback processes, teachers' corrective feedback is expected to guide the young students to use the linguistic features necessary for L2 writing, which helps them activate their cognitive processes in developing their competences in second language writing. The students explained that indirect feedback is helpful in noticing their errors and not making the same mistakes again in future drafts. This may result from their recognition of frequently occurring errors in their essay papers despite their grammatical knowledge. These errors perhaps represent a gap between what they know and what they produce. Indirect feedback is perceived as an effective approach by Korean EFL students because they believe it strengthens their current knowledge and will help them become proficient language users in the future.

The students' apparent preference for indirect feedback may suggest that they feel the need for self-regulated learning through self-editing practices. This result supports Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994) finding that the indirect feedback approach helps learners become more self-regulated during the learning process to a greater extent than the direct approach. The degree of teachers' 'scaffolding' (Woods et al., 1976) needs to become more implicit as learners start to gain more control over self-regulation in their learning. This implies that learners need different levels of assistance based on their developmental level and therefore teachers' corrective feedback approaches must be tailored depending on the tasks and stages of learning. The amount of scaffolding is to be removed gradually as the students establish the capacity to perform independently (Dunn & Lantolf, 1998). With indirect feedback, students can have an opportunity to work on their errors, gaining more control over self-regulation in their writing.

Although students may have acquired sufficient L2 grammar knowledge, FL/ESL students are likely to make the same linguistic errors in their drafts due to the nature of differences between the L1 and L2 (Ellis, 1991; Ellis et al., 2008; Long, 1996). In this regard, when feedback is provided, students may be aware that they are making errors in applying their knowledge, but they may make similar mistakes until their

short-term awareness turns into long-term memory. Such errors may thus occur frequently although they are aware of the relevant grammatical knowledge. The following excerpt also confirms that teachers were concerned about recurring errors in students' papers:

Excerpt 6.14

T3: The students tend to make the same mistakes over and over again. And when we make corrections/comments for them and if the students try to improve their writing skills by carefully considering our corrections/comments, it helps them to improve.

In Excerpt 6.14, T3 asserted that careful attention is essential for improving texts. This can lead to the 'development of long-term memory and thus make awareness available for later mental processing' (Schmidt, 2001, p. 16). Thus, students need to focus attention on what they actually write and notice discrepancies between what they already know and what is produced in their papers when they write in English. As demonstrated by T3's remarks above, the Korean EFL students may not have been developmentally ready to understand how to use their grammar knowledge correctly in their actual writing.

However, the results of this study reveal that the major problem lies in students' low motivation for self-editing, which contributed to the teachers' negative attitudes towards the helpfulness of their feedback provision. The majority of the students confirmed that they did not always read the corrective feedback they received. With the exception of only 11% of the students, the majority (89%) were not highly motivated to use teachers' corrective feedback in revising their drafts, irrespective of their proficiency. This result with regard to students' attitudes towards self-editing is linked to the discussion in 6.2.1 as a factor affecting teachers' beliefs of their corrective feedback approaches.

6.4.2 Students' reliance on teachers' corrective feedback

The findings from student questionnaires revealed young Korean EFL students' high reliance on teachers' corrective feedback. It must be noted that the vast majority of respondents (95%) believed that teachers' corrective feedback constitutes an essential role for their EFL writing development, irrespective of the students' preferences for

teachers' feedback approaches. Due to the lack of L2 writing education in mainstream curriculum (see section 2.2.3), teachers' corrective feedback can be interpreted as providing additional instruction to help the students' become competent language users. This is why the young students attend EFL writing courses provided by *hagwon*s after school. This is supported by a study on young Korean school students' anxiety about learning English. Korean students are not exposed to an English environment and they have issues such as classroom anxiety and low self-confidence in English (cf. Yim & Yu, 2011). Their anxieties appear to be influenced by a number of variables, such as test grades, experience of studying abroad, actual language proficiency and perceived language proficiency. In particular, young Korean EFL students who had never taken an English writing course perceived their writing as poor. They may think writing cannot be learned by any other means or in any other place and perceive their teachers' corrective feedback as providing essential assistance to help them become proficient L2 writers. Thus, the majority of the Korean EFL students appreciated their teachers' corrections and relied on such feedback to improve their writing. They mostly accept teachers' corrections and comments when provided and simply copied out their revised versions based on the teachers' feedback (Cheng, 2002; Yim & Yu, 2011). The students' such perceptions match particularly with the teachers' accounts on students' insufficient language proficiency. The teachers asserted that students' L2 writing proficiency was not adequate in terms of producing essay level writing in English and therefore they had difficulties interpreting students' meanings during the process of corrective feedback. This could explain why most of the teachers used direct feedback approaches, providing the correct forms. The students may not have been able to correct the errors on their own if indirect feedback was provided.

Another link explaining the students' high reliance on teachers' corrective feedback was lack of L1 writing experience due to the test-oriented classroom culture in Korea. Experience of writing in the L1 is important for L2 students' writing development (Kim, T.Y., 2009). Korean EFL students have a lack of writing education in both their L1 and L2. Due to their lack of experience, Korean secondary school learners feel little confidence when they need to produce writing in an L2 (Kim, T.Y., 2006, 2009, 2010; Yim & Yu, 2011). In other words, they are required to complete two missions in the English writing classroom and thus become dependent on teachers' revised versions of their written papers as model essays. Therefore, teachers must understand that for

some students, problematic areas of their English writing may have little to do solely with a lack of grammatical knowledge in English, but rather the successful application of their linguistic and rhetorical ability to write English essays (Bitchener & Ferris, (2012). The following excerpt explains why T8 needed to provide the '*perfect essay*' as a form of corrective feedback.

Excerpt 6.15

T8: And then I know that it's their second language. Also, I have experienced myself how difficult it is to learn to write in another language. I just try my best to show better sentences because they don't usually have any chances to see just good writing or just good English sentences just not broken (grammatically correct).

Finally, students' reliance on teachers may have resulted from the long-rooted teacher-centred Asian EFL classroom culture, which is related to Korean secondary school students' experience (Cheng, 2002; Lee, 2004, 2008; Yim & Yu, 2011). They believe teachers know everything and they tend to accept what teachers teach in class. Teacher's feedback works the same way and students' reliance on their feedback is very high. Thus, considerable weight seems to be put on teachers' responsibilities and a certain level of standards needs to be met to fulfil their responsibilities as good feedback providers. Feedback provision is considered a teachers' duty in EFL writing classroom. The following excerpt from T8 confirms how teachers actually respond to such beliefs on the part of the students and students' reliance on their feedback.

Excerpt 6.16

T8: I think that teachers' feedback is actually very important ... because they also know that it's necessary for us … it's a part of duty as well. Also, teachers think it's very important to improve their writing. English is their second language, without our feedback, they cannot learn what is right. So, I think it's very essential for their improvement. Also, at the same time, it's the teachers' duty in the classroom.

Examining her actual feedback samples, they show that such beliefs and instructional principles prompted her to correct almost all the errors in her students' papers, irrespective of their proficiency (see Appendix 10). She felt a strong responsibility to provide a model type of essay to her students so that they could copy the texts revised by her. She believed that it was the best way to improve students' English writing.

The results indicate that students' reliance on teachers' corrective feedback and teachers' commitment to feedback provision are entwined with the contextual factors previously discussed in this study (see sections 2.2, 2.3 and 2.4), such as the conditions of institutional policy, classroom culture and student differences. There is clearly a need for research seeking the most effective ways for students and teachers to establish the best feedback practices collaboratively. Students and the teachers should be encouraged to combine their efforts to balance the roles and responsibilities during feedback processes.

6.5 Research Question 4

RQ4. What corrective feedback practices do Korean EFL teachers implement in their writing classes?

This section is to address RQ4 by discussing possible reasons for a lack of correspondence between teachers' stated beliefs and actual practices in the *hagwon* context. The results of the investigation of the two teachers' feedback samples (T2 and T8) show that their actual corrective feedback approaches did not always reflect their reported beliefs. This may be explained by additional factors in the *hagwon* context: time constraints and test-oriented instructional methods. This study suggests that teachers' own beliefs affected their practice when tailoring their feedback approaches (e.g. Borg, 1998, 1999; Breen et al., 2001; Lee, 2004, 2008; Lortie, 1975).

6.5.1 Teachers' corrective feedback practices in the real classroom

The teachers' feedback on the students' writing papers was not consistent with their stated beliefs of their corrective feedback approaches. This result indicates a gap between their thinking and acting, which could reflect possible constraints embedded in teachers' decision making during feedback provision. Considering the triangulated results from analysis of the qualitative data sets, it can be suggested that teachers' selection and prioritization of corrective feedback could be influenced by additional factors such as time constraints and institutional policies (e.g. Lee, 1997, 2004, 2008).

In the interviews the teachers in this study pointed out the issues surrounding teaching in the *hagwon* context. They were faced with various difficulties, the two major factors being time constraints and test-oriented instruction. They lacked time to mark students' papers due to their heavy workloads and tight teaching schedules. In addition, nobody

was interested in what they did or how they did it. Unlike in Lee's (2004) study context, the teachers in this study of the *hagwon* context in Korea were not instructed regarding the errors on which they should focus or how to provide their feedback. In Lee's (2004) study, teachers were given the task of providing corrective feedback focusing on forms using two types of feedback approach – indirect coding and direct correction – during their working hours. However, in this study, corrective feedback provision was simply considered part of teachers' duties and greatly depended on teachers' intentions to make time for marking students' papers after their working hours. More importantly, they were usually told to give feedback, but their feedback was rarely evaluated. Their practice received little attention from the institution and hence the question of whether teachers were prepared sufficiently.

Time constraints

Some teachers brought attention to the time constraints that they faced in doing their job and marking the students' papers. The analysis of teachers' interview data and their feedback samples shows that feedback practice may have been affected by the level of teachers' motivation and commitment to their jobs in the specific *hagwon* context. The duties expected in their work seemed to be a burden for the teachers of writing in the schools. The following excerpts (6.17 and 6.18) show how time-consuming corrective feedback was after their working time.

Excerpt 6.17

T7: Since I started working here, I've got a lot of things to do apart from giving feedback. So, when I am tied up with other things, I don't have enough time to pay attention to their minor mistakes. I just try to think of the big picture reflected in their writing and then I just give the feedback on overall things.

Excerpt 6.18

T8: Actually, writing feedback is very personal and individual. From my point of view, it's very time consuming. So, teachers should be very efficient and very organized to give proper feedback within a limited time. Also, we have to remember they are second language learners and give them better chances to see the proper English expressions and sentences.

In terms of teachers' current feedback practices in a *hagwon* context, their immediate responses and the feelings they expressed showed that they had excessive duties at work and insufficient time to look at students' essay papers thoroughly. Providing feedback is a voluntary part of their work, which cannot be conducted in their working

hours due to their tight class hours. They usually teach four to five consecutive hours in the evenings when students come to *hagwon* after their regular school day and usually finish work at around 10 pm. Such teachers' accounts must not be neglected when schools develop teaching guidelines and regulations. It is noteworthy that teachers' concerns are associated with their inner conflicts between their beliefs about the duty to provide feedback and actual practical constraints at work.

Test-oriented instruction methods: use of templates/models

Due to the Korean classroom culture, which places huge weight on test results, it is not easy to choose diverse options in terms of feedback approaches. Rather than focusing on the process of writing and learning, most teachers tend to expect students to copy their corrections to essay papers. Moreover, as seen in Figure 5.9, T2 provided a template (five paragraphs), which she highlighted to most of her students. This is likely to reflect the way in which the teachers were educated when they were learning to write in English and thus they still stressed the same way of writing essays in a five-paragraph format, aimed at preparing students for high-stakes English writing examinations.

Similarly, as shown in Excerpt 6.13 previously, T8 recounted providing a model of a 'perfect essay', which she realized some students simply copied. However, she believed that it could be one way of improving their writing ability, to be exact, attaining near perfect scores in high-stakes writing tests as mentioned above. In her actual feedback samples, she seemed to correct errors based on her interpretation of the students' ambiguous or ungrammatical sentences, although she mentioned the time-consuming aspect of marking students' papers. The analysis of T8's actual feedback samples revealed that she in fact provided comprehensive direct feedback and her corrections were primarily related to grammatical errors and restructuring students' sentences, which was against her beliefs that her focus in feedback should be on both organizational and content-based aspects, distinguished according to students' levels of proficiency.

6.6 Contributions to the advancement of knowledge

This section discusses the contributions to the advancement of knowledge of the study.

Employing the Vygotskian concept of negotiation of feedback (Vygotsky, 1978) for the theoretical framework, the study places Korean EFL writing education in its

sociocultural, socio-political and socio-economic context. This framework views teachers' corrective feedback as shared products shaped by issues linked to teachers, students and the specific private language school context in Korea. Through the themes embedded in the research questions, the study provides a detailed understanding of the linkages between *what is going on in teachers' minds* and *what is occurring in the classroom*. As stated in 3.3.1, teachers' corrective feedback comprises 'cultural products to create new cultural forms that allow them to regulate their sociocultural behaviour' (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 57); such feedback is not meaningful unless it is understood mutually by the participants. The study explains such formation of teachers' corrective feedback from the perspectives of both students and teachers, as well as the unobservable factors influencing the choice and use of feedback approaches in the Korean EFL secondary classroom context. Using triangulated methods of analyses and incorporating different data sets to increase validity, the study provides a deeper understanding of aspects of the interpersonal and intrapersonal factors related to the participants' stated beliefs, perceptions and practices, as well as enabling a wide range of interpretations in responding to the context (Creswell & Tashakkori, 2007; Dörnyei, 2007). This has resulted in enhanced knowledge of the complex internal actions of participants.

With regard to the pedagogical implications, the study has indicated the existence of complex relationships between Korean EFL teachers' stated beliefs and their perceived approaches, as well as their students' perceptions of such feedback, all of which are intertwined(c.f. 6.2 and 6.3). This study expands the scope of existing research by exploring how Korean EFL secondary school teachers, whose first language is not English, perceive how they provide feedback to secondary EFL students. It also provides a detailed understanding on possible constraints embedded in the teachers' decision making during feedback provision, which is directly linked to the specific Korean secondary *hagwon* context. The findings of this study could be beneficial for implementing differential provision of written corrective feedback in Korean EFL secondary classrooms (c.f. 2.4.1) and accordingly provides helpful recommendations for practitioners in Korean EFL education.

Also, this study contributes to the implementation of professional teacher training in terms of more cultural-specific in-service programmes for Korean EFL writing teacher development. It raises awareness of the need of teachers' educational requirements in

differentiating their approaches to corrective feedback in the EFL writing classroom. The provision of corrective feedback requires expertise on the part of teachers as they need to make constant adjustments and tailor approaches to individual students' ZPDs (c.f. 3.3.2). Accordingly, teachers need to be specially trained to implement contextually suitable feedback approaches (Ferris, 2011; Hyland, F., 2000; Hyland & Hyland, 2006; Lee, 2011), particularly as such practice requires teachers to adopt a new role that they may previously have been unaware of. Perceiving the provision of corrective feedback as a task that requires expertise, it is important that schools provide a supportive environment for teachers to learn and practise innovative approaches based on clear pedagogical principles through in-house or external teacher education. This study emphasizes the need for in-house EFL writing workshops and training, which are invaluable in allowing practitioners to experience the complexities of corrective feedback approaches (see section 6.3.2).

Finally, this study draws attention to the significance of Korean EFL secondary students' engagement in self-editing as part of responding to their teachers' feedback. Until recently, little attention has been paid to secondary level EFL writing students, particularly those attending middle school (aged 13–15). To meet the appropriate degree of mediation between the students and their teachers in the feedback process, it is essential to begin educating Korean EFL students at a young age about the importance of taking ownership of their own writing (Conrad & Goldstein, 1999; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010; Tardy, 2006). The corrective feedback is viewed as a joint construction and therefore, successful implementation is not feasible without engagement on the part of students and indeed a great deal of effort(c.f. 3.6.5). Unless they engage in self-regulated learning in response to teachers' feedback, the efforts of the teachers are unlikely to yield the optimal benefits of corrective feedback. Bearing this in mind, this study encourages EFL practitioners in Korea to educate inexperienced secondary students in how to self-edit their own drafts in response to their teachers' feedback. To gain the greatest benefit in terms of writing development, it is recommended that all students be enabled and encouraged to engage in the required roles and activities. Such collective effort could help ensure that the students see improvements in their learning.

6.7 Summary of discussion

This study has systematically examined Korean EFL secondary school teachers' stated beliefs, perceptions and practices of written corrective feedback in the Korean EFL context as well as Korean EFL secondary students' perceptions of such feedback. The findings suggest that teachers' beliefs are a major influencing factor in their approaches towards feedback provision and may influence the formation of teachers' perceptions concerning their approaches to corrective feedback.

The teachers expressed their concerns regarding students' level of proficiency, error types, low motivation and time constraints. Furthermore, they presented mixed responses in terms of their perceptions concerning corrective feedback approaches to students' written work. Their perceived principles of responding to student errors varied (see section 6.3). Some recent evidence (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Ferris, 2011; Polio, 2012) indicates that teachers' corrective feedback is meant to be consistently adjusted and tailored to individual students' ZPDs, which can help them attain their target level of proficiency (Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Appel, 1994). For instance, some errors could be recurrent errors in L2 students' written work and could be improved by simply drawing students' attention to them.

Also, the nature of Korean secondary EFL students' perceptions of their teachers' corrective feedback was discussed, which differ from those of previous studies on students' perceptions (c.f. Elwood & Bode, 2014; Lee, 2004, 2008; Leki, 1991, 2006; Saito, 1994). The Korean EFL secondary students in this study wanted to receive corrective feedback to enable them to notice their errors so that they would not make the same mistakes in their next piece of writing. The students' perceptions of teachers' corrective feedback illustrated that they tend to focus on improving accuracy and the majority of the students expected their teachers to indicate the errors in their papers indirectly. Few students wanted their teachers to give the correct forms directly, showing the difference between this study and the aforementioned studies. This could be further interpreted as indicating that the students may be aware that they make mistakes and they want assistance from their teachers to notify what errors are found in their written texts. It could also be interpreted as indicating that their previous experience of teachers' feedback may have concerned common grammatical errors which occur frequently in their written papers.

Furthermore, this study reveals that there are differences between teachers' stated beliefs of corrective feedback and their actual approaches adopted in their classrooms. In light of possible reasons for this, challenges regarding contextual constraints and individual learner differences were discussed. The teachers reported that they were faced with various issues, the two major factors being time constraints and test-oriented instruction. As another example, the challenges in feedback provision in the *hagwon* context resulted from the lack of professional training. According to the literature (Kim, M.K., 2002), Korean EFL writing teachers have insufficient knowledge concerning the technical and generic aspects of English writing and therefore they lack confidence in their English writing abilities. Thus, the English teachers in Korea often seem to have difficulties in providing appropriate feedback in response to student errors. Some teachers reported that they felt there were limitations in their instructional methods and feedback approaches. For this reason, an in-service training course would be valuable.

Drawing on the findings, this study is to contribute to the current knowledge of how Korean EFL teachers in *hagwons* (private language schools) should tailor their approaches in response to students' need of their teachers' corrective feedback. The findings of the study suggest that: i) to shape and maximize the benefits of feedback, training programmes designed for professional writing teachers could be an ideal way of helping teachers better solve the challenging issues of responding to student writing; ii) to facilitate the most effective corrective feedback approaches in Korean EFL writing classrooms, stakeholders need to identify problems related to the teaching environment to gain a better understanding of what might or might not work. To achieve this, schools must consider undertaking a critical examination of what teachers need in terms of training, how to provide explicit instructional guidelines to the teachers and how to educate less motivated students. Rather than focusing on marketing their programmes, they should focus on how to improve the quality of their programmes to provide systematic and consistent feedback practices. Korean EFL practitioners should no longer ignore the imperative of differentiated instructional approaches in today's diverse classrooms.

The study draws attention to the need of understanding individual diversity and differences in the processing of corrective feedback. Teachers' and students' perceptions are highly individualized, complex and context-dependent (Borg, 1998;

Breen et al., 2001). It is essential to be aware that the corrective feedback process works mutually between a student and a teacher in the writing classroom (c.f. Adair-Hauck & Donato, 1994; Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Donato, 1994; Lantolf & Aljaafreh, 1995). Thus, mutual understanding between teachers and students is pivotal in resolving and tailoring teachers' feedback approaches. They need to combine their efforts to work collaboratively, which can lead to establishing the optimal corrective feedback practices in L2 writing.

Chapter 7: Conclusion

7.1 Conclusion

This study provides a deeper understanding on the extent of Korean EFL secondary school teachers' stated beliefs concerning the differential provision of teachers' written corrective feedback in current Korean EFL secondary school context by exploring: i) Korean EFL secondary school teachers' stated beliefs concerning written corrective feedback; ii) the teachers' perceptions concerning the nature of their own written corrective feedback approaches; iii) Korean EFL secondary students' perceptions of teachers' written corrective feedback; iv) the teachers' actual feedback practices based on samples of feedback on students' essay papers.

Situated in the Korean EFL secondary context, the study intends to encourage the teachers to become more flexible and dynamic in tailoring their feedback approaches in response to their young students' needs. With an emphasis on the complex nature of Korean EFL secondary school teachers' stated beliefs of written corrective feedback, the study sheds light on what influenced the formulation of their perceptions of feedback approaches, as well as the relationship between such perceptions and their actual feedback practices. For instance, the Korean EFL teachers were uncertain about whether providing feedback would be helpful in improving students' writing unless they were engaged in learning. Their responses were mixed. The teachers' stated beliefs about corrective feedback and their current feedback approaches were significantly influenced by their own previous experiences in learning and teaching (e.g. instructional styles, teachers' L2 writing competence, lack of professional training), students' responses towards their feedback (e.g. absence of self-editing, lack of English ability, lack of motivation) and the practical constraints in the institution (e.g. time constraints, instructional policy, classroom culture). Thus, in such contexts, Korean EFL teachers' perceptions of corrective feedback approaches were diversely individualized, complex and context-dependent (c.f. Borg, 1998, 1999; Breen et al., 2001). Also, closer examination of the whole sets of data revealed discrepancies in the links between teachers' beliefs, perceptions and actual feedback practices. With a lack of guiding principles and professional training, the complex relationships between teachers' stated beliefs of corrective feedback and their actual approaches should

further be modulated through curriculum innovation and teacher education. Accordingly, practitioners need to consider undertaking a critical examination of what teachers need, how to provide explicit instructional guidelines and how to educate less motivated students (Goldstein, 2004).

With regard to students' perceptions of their teachers corrective feedback, the Korean EFL secondary students' responses showed that 95% believed their teachers' corrective feedback to be helpful and they were willing to receive feedback from their teachers. The majority (73%) of the students preferred to receive teachers' feedback on 'grammar and sentence structure' with a view to improvement, irrespective of their proficiency level. The young Korean EFL students perceived that their grammar skills and sentence structure were not at a sufficient level to write essays in English. Thus, their focus on writing development was linked to improvements in 'accuracy'. Also, concerning the explicitness in teachers' corrective feedback approaches, Korean EFL secondary school students perceived that indirect feedback would be more beneficial for their writing, suggesting that receiving indirect feedback focused on their grammatical errors might help them enhance the attention paid to such errors. This contrasted with other studies, which were in favour of direct feedback approaches (e.g. Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Lee, 2005: Leki, 1991, 2006).

Finally, the integrated analyses of the findings suggest that a variety of EFL learner characteristics in the particular *hagwon* context should be considered critical in terms of feedback processing and efficiency (c.f. Chandler, 2003; Ferris, 2012; Goldstein, 2004, 2007; Hyland, F., 1998; Hyland & Hyland, 2006; Montgomery & Baker, 2007). In the interviews, the teachers in this study pointed out the issues surrounding teaching unmotivated students in the hagwon context. One of the issues surrounding corrective feedback in the *hagwon* context (see section 5.5) was that some students showed a lack of interest in self-editing using the feedback given. The majority of Korean EFL secondary students confirmed that they would not always use the feedback given in their revisions. With the exception of 11% of the students, the majority were not highly motivated to use teachers' corrective feedback in revising their drafts, irrespective of their proficiency levels. Indeed, it seemed difficult to induce them to see the importance of self-engagement in learning, despite their enrolment in tutoring programmes to supplement their academic performance in regular schools. This study supports the notion that students need their attention to be directed towards their

engagement in self-editing, particularly, in response to teachers' feedback provision (c.f. Conrad & Goldstein, 1999; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010; Tardy, 2006) to maximize the benefits of corrective feedback in English writing.

7.2 Limitations of the study

The results of the study shed light on how teachers' beliefs of written corrective feedback were shaped and what influenced the formulation of their perceptions by discussing the existence of complex relationships between teachers' stated beliefs, perceptions and actual practices. However, as emphasized in section 4.6.4, especially in the context of the restricted scope and resources available for EdD research conducted by a single researcher, it is important to reflect on the findings and highlight that the study is subject to certain limitations. In this study, these include the following: (i) a low response rate and the reliability of the results; (ii) the quality of data collection methods and strategies; (iii) the generalizability of the findings.

The first limitation relates to the small sample size and thus the reliability of the findings concerning the teachers' corrective feedback practices. At the end of the course, I was only able to obtain feedback data from two teachers, T2 and T8, rather than all eight. The issue regarding the reliability of data is linked to consistency and concerns the extent to which the findings would yield similar results if the study were repeated by others (Miles & Huberman, 1994). It was due to the teachers' busy schedules and personal circumstances, which changed after they originally consented to participate. Had I been able to collect more data from the others, I could potentially have derived more valid and reliable findings and drawn more robust conclusions. To support the findings more strongly, the results were triangulated with other data sets (Creswell & Miller, 2000; Creswell et al., 2003; Denzin, 1978; Johnson & Turner, 2003). Although the information was somewhat limited as it was obtained from only two teachers, it was nevertheless helpful in complementing other evidence and tentatively suggesting potentially significant factors related to the teachers' pedagogical stated beliefs, perceptions and practices concerning written corrective feedback.

Another limitation concerns the interview technique during data collection, namely the sensitivity of the interview questions, which might have influenced the reliability of the results (Leech, 2002). Reconsidering the constructs and the interview questions,

the teachers probably felt judged to some extent and may well have responded to the questions based on their beliefs about what should be done rather than the actual feedback approaches used. They may have wanted to demonstrate that their instructional principles were correct and effective. This issue was raised after I realized the discrepancies between their perceived approaches and actual practices. In future research, researchers should consider the phrasing and nature of interview questions. To mitigate this problem, researchers should consider the possible consequences of sensitivities embedded in the interview questions and structure a conversation using alternative techniques (Creswell, 2003; Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Leech, 2002). For instance, according to Leech (2002), using prompts can be an effective approach. Since question styles can affect the participants' responses 'when seeking very specific information about a known topic' (p. 668), using effective prompts could have strengthened the findings in terms of providing a deeper understanding of the teachers' perceptions and eliciting detailed information.

Another limitation relates to the design of survey items seeking specific information (i.e. beliefs, personal/social bias) in the student survey. For example, it is not clear whether the students' responses were to some extent biased or due to ambiguous survey items (Aiken, 1997; Dörnyei, 2010). Again, there is the risk that students felt they should provide 'good' responses rather than transparent answers. Reviewing all the questions in the student survey, I realized that there were some sensitivity issues concerning a couple of items (i.e. Q4 and Q10 in Appendix 3). These questions were associated with students' evaluations of the value of teachers' feedback and the degree of their own engagement in response to their teachers' feedback. Considering possible negative influences, these two questions appeared to contain a sensitive element in terms of invisible complexities in the teacher–student relationship. As a result, students may have been wary about being too direct in responding and the potential for changes in their relationships with their teachers caused by negative responses. The teachers were involved in collecting the student surveys and the students could thus have been concerned that it would be possible to identify individual responses. In future studies, it may be advantageous to consider and devise alternative methods to ensure better respondent confidentiality, improve the design of survey items and interview questions via more stringent piloting of research instruments to put the students under less pressure in the research context. There is a need to ensure that the nuances of the data

collected in the responses of participants are retained as accurately as possible through the use of appropriate techniques.

To strengthen the results of the study, one alternative might have been to have student interviews in the research design. However, in terms of undertaking further data collection through student interviews, the student participants could not directly provide consent as they were under age, being middle school students (aged 13–15), and there were constraints in obtaining parental permission. Indeed, it was challenging to gain access to the student participants at all due to the complex procedures for acquiring parental permission for their participation in the research. The students attended the classes only twice a week after school and their parents were reluctant to consent to their children spending extra time on further participation in the research. Student interviews could potentially be incorporated in a study of longer duration, giving more time to the data collection itself and providing reassurance to the all those involved, namely students, teachers and parents.

The last relates to participant sampling and the generalizability of the findings. Due to the limited sample of teachers' written feedback on students' work, obtained from only two teachers, more weight was placed in this study on understanding the detailed characteristics and nature of participants' beliefs and perceptions via survey and interview evidence. For this reason, generalizability was limited by the methods of data collection and the sampling employed (Punch, 2014). Moreover, this study was highly oriented to a specific context and thus the transferability of conclusions to other specific contexts was not sought. Also, there may be considerable differences between students in terms of their prior experiences of learning English writing, as well as a great variety of teacher profiles. The study was conducted specifically in a private language school in Seoul, as English essay writing is almost entirely lacking in the state school curriculum (see 2.2.1). Possible differences may include participant factors, such as prior learning and teaching experience, individual motivational characteristics and the institutional instructional policies of the *hagwons*, inter alia. Moreover, regional and institutional factors, such as the size and location of the school and the socio-economic status of the area in town, may also have influenced the findings. Consequently, if this study had been conducted in a state school or a rural context, the results would potentially have been different.

7.3 Directions for future research

Following the limitations stated above, a few suggestions are proposed for future research concerning teachers' corrective feedback approaches for EFL learners.

First, as mentioned in the limitations, it is recommended that future research should be longitudinal to ensure a more thorough examination of the complex nature of the teachers' stated beliefs, perceptions and practices concerning written feedback approaches. As Lee (2008) argues, what affects teachers' actual feedback approaches is not certain. It may take longer to establish a specific component of the underlying factors in the context than was possible in this small-scale research of short duration. As discussed in Chapter 5, EFL writing teachers in Korea use a mix of approaches and reportedly their difficulties in using consistent feedback approaches resulted from the complex links between the beliefs governing their decisions on feedback approaches (Borg, 1998, 1999; Breen et al., 2001), lack of guidance and training and contextual constraints. A more effective research design and methods could be planned and applied to investigate the complexities of teachers' beliefs (i.e. pedagogic beliefs, knowledge, assumptions, attitudes, preferences, etc.) and thus seek to avoid the methodological and sampling limitations of the current study (Borg, 1998, 1999; Breen et al., 2001; Hyland & Hyland, 2006; Lee, 2006; Pajares, 1992).

In addition, it would be of great interest to examine how students respond to the feedback given on their drafts in multiple drafting sessions. This study did not look at students' written work in follow-up drafts. Due to time constraints and limited access to the underage students, the study was unable to explore additional information in relation to their responses. Thus, further longitudinal research into students' responses to diverse types and forms of teachers' approaches is required (see Ferris, 2002, 2006, 2011; Hyland, F., 2000; Hyland & Hyland, 2006; Lee, 2008, 2011). If possible, exploring a larger and more representative sample of comparable secondary schools might raise awareness of the challenges identified in this study and could yield similar or different findings. This could broaden the scope of understanding among practitioners regarding the current issues in Korean EFL writing classes. Bearing in mind the limitations in conducting research with underage students, future research should also consider ways of optimizing the effectiveness of research methods in exploring the complexities of teachers' beliefs and their actual performance to assure reliability (Aiken, 1997; Dörnyei, 2007, 2010). For instance, in questionnaires the

wording of items is among the most critical issues. According to Aiken (1997), items relevant to participants' attitudes or beliefs should be selected with careful consideration of possible psychological factors (e.g. personal bias, undesirable social behaviour, pressure or threat). As noted in the limitations, writing sensitive items requires special attention and rigorous piloting is needed to ensure survey items and interview questions are fit for purpose.

The final suggestion relates to the need for research in particular on secondary level EFL writing education in Korea. Many empirical studies in various tertiary level ESL contexts have already provided guidance to ensure the effectiveness of written feedback approaches for writing teachers and practitioners (e.g. Ferris, 2002, 2006, 2011; Hyland, F., 2000; Hyland & Hyland, 2006). However, this study had limited resources and it was not possible to investigate potentially relevant documents, for example those specifying instructional guidelines or teacher handbooks. There is a dearth of such documents for teachers and practitioners and there are still few published resources available that offer clear guidelines for teachers of EFL writing in Korea. Thus, further research is required to develop practical and feasible guidelines for applying feedback approaches in instruction in specific secondary school contexts.

References

Adair-Hauck, B., & Donato, R. (1994). Foreign language explanations within the zone of proximal development. *Canadian Modern Language Review, 50*, 532-557.

Aiken, L. (1997). *Questionnaires and inventories: Surveying opinions and assessing personality*. New York, NY: John Wiley.

Aljaafreh, A., & Lantolf, J. P. (1994). Negative feedback as regulation and second language learning in the zone of proximal development. *The Modern Language Journal, 78*(4), 465-483.

Ashwell, T. (2000). Patterns of teacher response to student writing in a multiple-draft composition classroom: Is content feedback followed by form feedback the best method? *Journal of Second Language Writing, 9*, 227-257.

Asmussen, K. J., & Creswell, J. W. (1995). Campus response to a student gunman. *Journal of higher education, 66*, 575-591.

Baca, G. (2011). *The English wave: Foreign language and class conflict.* Retrieved from http://congress.aks.ac.kr/korean/files/2_1357261587.pdf.

Bitchener, J. (201. Written corrective feedback for L2 development: Current knowledge and future research. *TESOL Quarterly, 46*(4), 855-860.

Bitchener, J., & Ferris, D. (2012). *Written corrective feedback in second language acquisition and writing.* New York, NY: Routledge.

Bitchener, J., & Knoch, U. (2010). The contribution of written corrective feedback to language development: A ten month investigation. *Applied Linguistics*, *31*(2), 193-214.

Bodrova, E., & Leong, D. J. (2007). *Tools of the mind: The Vygotskian approach to early childhood education* (2nd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.

Borg, S. (1998). Teachers' pedagogical systems and grammar teaching: A qualitative study. *TESOL Quarterly, 32*, 9-38.

Borg, S. (1999). The use of grammatical terminology in the second language classroom: A qualitative study of teachers' practices and cognitions. *Applied Linguistics, 20*(1), 95-126.

Borg, S. (2001) Self-perception and practice in teaching grammar. *ELT Journal 55*, 21–29.

Borg, S. (2003) Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language Teaching 36*, 81–10.

Borg, S. (2011). The impact of in-service teacher education on language teachers' beliefs. *System 39*, 370–380.

Brannen, J. (1992). *Mixing methods: Qualitative and quantitative research.* Aldershot, UK: Ashgate Publishing Limited.

Brannen, J. (2005). Mixing methods: The entry of qualitative and quantitative approaches into the research process. *The International Journal of Social Research Methodology, Special Issue, 8*(3), 173-185.

Brown, H. D. (1987). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.

Bray, M. (1999). *The shadow education system: Private tutoring and its implications for planners*. Paris: UNESCO International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP).

Bray, M. (2009). *Confronting the shadow education system: What government policies for what private tutoring?* Paris: UNESCO International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP).

Bray, M., & Kwok, P. (2003) Demand for private supplementary tutoring: Conceptual considerations and socio-economic patterns in Hong Kong. *Economics of Education Review 22*(6), 611-620.

Bray, M. (2010). Researching shadow education: Challenges and directions. *Asia Pacific Education Review 11*(1), 3–13.

Breen, M. P., Hird, B., Milton, M., Oliver, R., & Thwaite, A. (2001). Making sense of language teaching: teachers' principles and classroom practices. *Applied Linguistics, 22*(4), 470-501.

Bryman, A. (1988). *Quantity and quality in social research*. London: Unwin Hyman.

Bryman, A. (2001). *Social research methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bryman, A. (2006). Integrating quantitative and qualitative research: How is it done? *Qualitative Research, 6*(1), 97-114.

Campbell, C., Proctor, H., & Sherrington, G. (2009*). School choice: How parents negotiate the new school market in Australia*. Sydney: Allen and Unwin.

Carson, D., Gilmore, A., Perry, C., & Gronhaug, K. (2001). *Qualitative marketing research*. London: Sage.

Chan, C., & Bray, M. (2014). Marketized private tutoring as a supplement to regular schooling: Liberal studies and the shadow sector in Hong Kong secondary education. *Journal of Curriculum Studies, 46*(3), 361-388.

Chandler, J. (2003). The efficacy of various kinds of error feedback for improvement in the accuracy and fluency of L2 student writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 12*(3), 267-296.

Chaudron, C. (1988). *Second language classroom: Research on teaching and learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Cheng, Y. (2002). Factors associated with foreign language writing anxiety. *Foreign Language Annals, 35*(5), 647-656.

Choi, J. (2006). A contrastive analysis of argumentative essays written in English by Korean ESL students and by native English-speaking students (Doctoral dissertation, Southern Illinois University at Carbondale, 2005). *Dissertation Abstracts International, 66*(11), 3907.

Choi, J. (2012). *Private tutoring and educational inequality: Evidence from dynamic model of academic achievement in Korea*. Retrieved from http://paa2013.princeton.edu/sessions/105.

Clark, C. M., & Peterson, P. L. (1986). Teachers' thought processes. In Wittrock, M. C. (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (pp. 255-96). New York, NY: Macmillan.

Cohen, A., & Cavalcanti, M. (1990). Feedback on compositions: Teacher and student verbal reports. In Kroll B. (Ed.), *Second language writing: Insights for the classroom* (pp. 155-77). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education*. London: Routledge/Falmer.

Conrad, S. M., & Goldstein, L. M. (1999). ESL student revision after teacher written comments: Text, contexts and individuals. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 8*, 147-179.

Creswell, J. W. (1999). Mixed–method research: Introduction and application. In: Cizek, G. J. (Ed.), *Handbook of educational policy* (pp. 455–472). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed method approaches.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J. W., & Miller, D. L. (2000). Determining validity in qualitative inquiry. *Theory into Practice, 39*(3), 124-131.

Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2007). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J. W., Plano Clark, V. L., Gutmann, M. L., & Hanson, W. E. (2003). Advanced mixed methods research designs. In Tashakkori A. & Teddlie, C. (Eds.), *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioural research* (pp. 209-240). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J. W., & Tashakkori, A. (2007). Developing publishable mixed methods manuscripts. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research, 1,* 107-111.

Cumming, A. (1995). Fostering writing expertise in ESL composition instruction: Modelling and evaluation. In Belcher, D. & Braine, G. (Eds.), *Academic writing in a second language* (pp. 375-397). Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Co.

Denzin, N. K. (1970). *The research act*. Chicago, IL: Aldine.

Diab, R. L. (2005). Teachers' and students' beliefs about responding to ESL writing: A case study. *TESL Canada Journal, 23,* 28-43.

Donato, R., & McCormick, D. (1994). A sociocultural perspective on language learning strategies: The role of mediation. *The Modern Language Journal 78*(iv), 453-464.

Dörnyei, Z. (2007) Creating a motivating classroom environment. In Cummins, J. & Davison, C. (Eds.). *International handbook of English language teaching*. New York, NY: Springer.

Dörnyei, Z. (2010). *Questionnaires in second language research: Construction, administration, and processing*, (2nd ed.). London: Routledge.

Dunn, W., & Lantolf, J. (1998). Vygotsky's zone of proximal development and Krashen's i + 1: Incommensurable constructs; incommensurable theories. *Language Learning, 48*, 411-442.

Ellis, R. (1991). *Second language acquisition and language pedagogy*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Ellis, R. (2009). A typology of written corrective feedback types. *ELT Journal 63*(2), 97-107.

Ellis, R. (2010). A framework for investigating oral and written corrective feedback. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition 32*(2), 335-349.

Ellis, R., Sheen, Y., Murakami, M., & Takashima, H. (2008). The effects of focused and unfocused written corrective feedback in an English as a foreign language context. *System 36*(3), 353-371.

Elwood, J. A., & Bode, J. (2014). Student preferences vis-à-vis teacher feedback in university EFL writing classes in Japan. *System, 42*, 333-343.

Fathman, A., & Whalley, E. (1990). Teacher response to student writing: Focus on form versus content. In Kroll, B. (Ed.), *Second language writing* (pp. 178-190). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ferris, D. (1995). Student reactions to teacher response in multiple-draft composition classrooms. *TESOL Quarterly, 29*, 33-35.

Ferris, D. (1997). The influence of teacher commentary on student revision. *TESOL Quarterly, 31*(2), 315-339.

Ferris, D. (1999). The case for grammar correction in L2 writing classes: A response to Truscott (1996). *Journal of Second Language Writing, 8,* 1-10.

Ferris, D. (2002). *Treatment of error in second language student writing*. Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan Press.

Ferris, D. (2003). *Response to student writing: Implications for second language students*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Ferris, D. (2004). The 'grammar correction' debate in L2 writing: Where are we, and where do we go from here? (and what do we do in the meantime . . . ?). *Journal of Second Language Writing, 13*(1), 49-62.

Ferris, D. (2006). Does error feedback help student writers? New evidence on the short- and long-term effects of written error correction. In Hyland, K. & Hyland F. (Eds.), *Feedback in second language writing: Contexts and issues* (pp. 81-104). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ferris, D. (2007). Preparing teachers to respond to student writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 16,* 165-193.

Ferris, D. (2011). *Treatment of error in second language student writing*. Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan Press.

Ferris, D., & Hedgcock, J. S. (2005). *Teaching ESL composition: Purpose, process and practice* (2nd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Ferris, D., & Helt, M. (2000). *Was Truscott right? New evidence on the effects of error correction in L2 writing classes.* Proceedings of the *American Association of Applied Linguistics Conference*, Vancouver, BC, 11–14 March, 2000.

Ferris, D., & Roberts, B. (2001). Error feedback in L2 writing classes: How explicit does it need to be? *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *10*(3), 161-84.

Ferris, D., Pezone, S., Tade, C., & Tinti, S. (1997). Teachers' commentary on student writing: Descriptions and implications. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 6,* 155-182.

Ferris, D., Chaney, S. J., Komura, K., Roberts, B. J., & McKee, S. (2000). *Perspectives, problems, and practices in treating written error*. Colloquium presented at *International TESOL Convention*, 14–18 March, 2000, Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada.

Frodesen, J., & Holten, C. (2003). Grammar and the ESL writing class. In Kroll, B. (Ed.), *Exploring the dynamics of second language writing* (pp. 141-161). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Fu, D. (1995). *'My trouble is my English': Asian students and the American dream.* Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook.

Fu, D. (2003). *An island of English: Teaching ESL in Chinatown*. Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook.

Greene J. C. (2007). *Mixed methods in social inquiry*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Greene, J. C., Caracelli, V. J., & Graham, W. F. (1989). Toward a conceptual framework for mixed-method evaluation designs. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 11*, 255-274.

Goldstein, L. (2001). For Kyla: What does the research say about responding to ESL writers? In Silva T., & Matsuda, P. (Eds.), *On second language writing* (pp. 73-90). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Goldstein, L. (2004). Questions and answers about teacher written commentary and student revision: Teachers and students working together. *Journal of Second Language Writing 13*(1), 63-80.

Goldstein, L. (2006). In search of the individual: Feedback and revision in second language writing. In Hyland, K. & Hyland, F. (Eds.), *Feedback in second language writing: Contexts and issues* (pp. 185-205). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Goldstein, L., & Conrad, S. (1990). Student input and negotiation of meaning in ESL writing conferences. *TESOL Quarterly*, *24*(3), 443-460.

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 105-117). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Guénette, D. (2007). Is feedback pedagogically correct? Research design issues in studies of feedback on writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 16,* 40-53.

Harris, T., & Hodges, R. (Eds.). (1981). *A dictionary of reading and related terms*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Hedgcock, J., & Lefkowitz, N. (1994). Feedback on feedback: Assessing learner receptivity to teacher response in L2 composing. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 3*, 141-163.

Howe, K. R. (1988). Against the quantitative-qualitative incompatibility thesis or dogmas die hard. *Education Researcher, 17,* 10-16.

Hyland, F. (1998). The impact of teacher written feedback on individual writers. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 7*, 255-286.

Hyland, F. (2000). ESL writers and feedback: Giving more autonomy to students. *Language Teaching Research, 4*, 33-54.

Hyland, K. (2001). Bringing in the reader: Addressee features in academic writing. *Written Communication, 18*(4), 549-574.

Hyland, F., & Hyland, K. (2006). Feedback on second language students' writing. *Language Teaching, 39*(2), 83-101.

Hyland, K., & Anan, E. (2006). Teachers' perceptions of error: The effects of first language and experience. *System*, *34*(4), 509-519.

Jeon, M., & Lee, J. (2006). Hiring native-speaking English teachers in East Asian Countries. *English Today*, *88*, *22*(4), 53-58.

Jeong, Y. K. (2004). A chapter of English teaching in Korea. *English Today, 20* (2), 40-46. Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation (KICE), Retrieved from http://kice.re.kr/en/index.do.

Johnson, R. B., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2004). Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational Researcher, 33*(7), 14-26.

Jung, S. K., & Norton, B. (2002). Language planning in Korea: The new elementary English program. In Tollefson, J. W. (Ed.), *Language policies in education: Critical issues* (pp. 245-265). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Kepner, C. G. (1991). An experiment in the relationship of types of written feedback to the development of second-language writing skills. *Modern Language Journal, 75,* 305-313.

Kim, J-H. (2007). *A game theoretical approach to private tutoring in South Korea*. NCSPE Research Publications, 144.

Kim, M. K. (2003). Self-efficacy of Korean EFL writing instructors and its relationship with their feedback to students. *English Teaching*, *58*(1), 81-111.

Kim, S., & Lee, J. (2001). *Demand for education and developmental state: Private tutoring in South Korea*. Social Science Research Network Electronic Paper Collections.

Kim, T-Y. (2006). Motivation and attitudes toward foreign language learning as socio-politically mediated constructs: The case of Korean high school students. *The Journal of Asia TEFL 3(2),* 165-192.

Kim, T-Y. (2009). The sociocultural interface between ideal self and ought-to self: A case study of two Korean students' ESL motivation. In Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (Eds.), *Motivation, language Identity, and the L2 self* (pp. 274-294). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Kim, T-Y. (2010). Socio-political influences on EFL motivation and attitudes: comparative surveys of Korean high school students. *Asia Pacific Educational Review*, *11*, 211-222.

Kim, Y. H. (2013). Examining teachers' perceptions of English writing instruction and assessment in preparation for the National English Ability Test (NEAT). *Studies in British and American Language and Literature, 107,* 185-211.

Koo, H. (2007). The changing faces of inequality in South Korea in the age of globalization. *Korean Studies*, *31*, 1-18.

KICE & MEST. (2011). *National English ability test (NEAT) and the revisit of nationwide education curriculum plan (NECP)*. Seoul: KICE.

Korea Times. (2008, June 18). Overseas elementary students double. *Korea Times*. Retrieved from http://www.koreantimes.com.

Korea Times. (2008, August 24). Seoul starts English immersion study. *Korea Times*. Retrieved from http://www.koreantimes.com.

Korea Times. (2011, December 14). Seven colleges to demand NEAT scores. *Korea Times*. Retrieved from http://www.koreantimes.com.

Korea Times. (2013, April 10). NEAT to have positive impact on English learning. *Korea Times*. Retrieved from http://www.koreantimes.com.

Krashen, S. (1981). *Second language acquisition and second language learning*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Kroll, B. (1990). What does time buy? ESL student performance on home versus class compositions. In Kroll, B. (Ed.), *Second language writing: Research insights for the classroom* (pp. 140-154). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lantolf, J. P. (Ed.). (2000). *Sociocultural theory and second language learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Lantolf, J., & Aljaafreh, A. (1995). L2 learning in the zone of proximal development: A revolutionary experience. *International Journal of Educational Research, 23*(7), 51-64.

Lantolf, J. P., & Appel, G. (1994). Theoretical frameworks: An introduction to Vygotskian perspectives on second language research. In Van Patten, B., & Williams, J. (Eds.), *Vygotskian approaches to second language research* (pp. 1-15). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Lantolf, J. P., & Thorne, S. L. (2007). Sociocultural theory and second language acquisition. In. Van Patten, B., & Williams, J. (Eds.), *Explaining second language acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lee, E. P. (2001). *Error analysis on medical students' writing*. Retrieved from http://www.stc.arts.chula.ac.th/ITUA/Papers_for_ITUA_Proceedings/Eunpyo-new.pdf

Lee, I. (1997). ESL learners' performance in error correction in writing: Some implications for teaching. *System, 25*, 465-477.

Lee, I. (2004). Error correction in L2 secondary writing classrooms: The case of Hong Kong. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 13*, 285-312.

Lee, I. (2005). Error correction in the L2 writing classroom: What do students think? *TESL Canada Journal, 22*(2), 1-16.

Lee, I. (2008). Understanding teachers' written feedback practices in Hong Kong secondary classrooms. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 17*, 69-85.

Lee, I. (2011). Feedback revolution: What gets in the way? *ELT Journal, 65*(1), 1-12.

Lee, J. (2010). Ideologies of English in the South Korean 'English immersion' debate. In Selected Proceedings of the *2008 Second Language Research Forum* (pp. 246-260). Somerville, MA: Cascadilla.

Lee, J. C. K., Kwan, P., & Walker, A. (2009), Vice-principalship: Their responsibility roles and career aspirations, *International Journal of Leadership in Education, 12*(2), 187-207.

Lee, J. S., & Shin, S. (2008). Korean heritage language education in the United States: The current state, opportunities, and possibilities. *Heritage Language Journal, 6*(2), 1-20.

Leech, B. L. (2002). Asking questions: Techniques for semi-structured interviews. *PS: Political Science & Politics, 35*, 665–668.

Leech, N. L., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2010). The mixed research journey: From where we started to where we hope to go. *International Journal of Multiple Research Approaches, 4*, 73-88.

Leki, I. (1991). The preferences of ESL students for error correction in college-level writing classes. *Foreign Language Annals, 24*, 203-218.

Leki, I. (2006). You cannot ignore: Graduate L2 students' experience of and response to written feedback practices within their disciplines. In Hyland, K., & Hyland, F. (Eds.), *Feedback in ESL writing: Contexts and issues*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. (1999). *How languages are learned*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Lincoln, Y. S., Lynham, S. A., & Guba, E. G. (2011). Paradigmatic controversies, contradictions and emerging confluences, revisited. In Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of qualitative research* (4th ed., pp. 99-128). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Long, M. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In Ritchie, W., & Bhatia, T. (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 413-468). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Lortie, D. (1975). *Schoolteacher: A sociological study*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Matsuda, P. K. (2003). Second language writing in the twentieth century: A situated historical perspective. In Kroll, B. (Ed.), *Exploring the dynamics of second language writing* (pp. 15-34). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

McLaughlin, B. (1987). *Theories of second language acquisition*. London: Edward Arnold.

Mertens D. (2005). *Research and evaluation in education and psychology: Integrating diversity with quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods* (2nd ed.). Boston, MA: Sage.

Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Ministry of Education, & Human Resource Development. (2007). *National curriculum for global high schools.* Seoul: MEHRD.

Monette, D. R., Sullivan, T. J., & DeJong, C. R. (2002). *Applied social research.* Orlando, FL: Harcourt Press.

Montgomery, J. L., & Baker, W. (2007). Teacher-written feedback: Student perceptions, teacher self-assessment, and actual teacher performance. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *16*, 82-99.

Morse, J. M. (1991). Approaches to qualitative-quantitative methodological triangulation. *Nursing Research, 40,* 120-123.

Morse, J. M. (2003). Principles of mixed method and multimethod research design. In Teddlie, C., & Tashakkori, A. (Eds.), *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioural research* (pp. 189-208). London: Sage.

Moustakas, C. (1994). *Phenomenological research methods.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Teddlie, C. (2003). A framework for analysing data in mixed methods research. In Tashakkori A., & Teddlie, C. (Eds.), *Handbook of*

mixed methods in social and behavioural research (pp. 351-383). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Leech, N. L. (2004). Enhancing the interpretation of significant findings: The role of mixed methods research. Paper presented at the *Annual Meeting of the Eastern Educational Research Association*, Clearwater, FL. Retrieved from http://nsuworks.nova.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1913&context=tqr.

Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Leech, N. L. (2006). Linking research questions to mixed methods data analysis procedures. *The Qualitative Report, 11*, 474-498.

Pajares, F. (1992). Teachers′ beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up the messy construct. *Review of Educational Research, 62*(3), 307-332.

Park, J. K. (2007). *Korean parents in 'English fever' and their 'early study-abroad' children in the U. S.: Parental beliefs and practices concerning first language peers*. Doctoral dissertation. Bloomington, IN: Indiana University.

Park, J. K. (2009). 'English fever' in South Korea: Its history and symptoms. *English Today 97, 25*(1), 50-57.

Park, S. J., & Abelmann, N. (2004). Class and cosmopolitan striving: Mothers' management of English education in South Korea. *Anthropological Quarterly, 77*(4), 645-672.

Polio, C. (2012). The relevance of second language acquisition theory to the written error correction debate. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 21*(4), 375-389.

Punch, K. F. (2014). *Introduction to social research: Quantitative and qualitative approaches* (3rd ed.). London: Sage.

Robb, T., Ross, S., & Shortreed, I. (1986). Salience of feedback on error and its effect on EFL writing quality. *TESOL Quarterly, 20*, 83-93.

Rossman, G. B., & Wilson, B. L. (1985). Numbers and words: Combining quantitative and qualitative methods in a single large-scale evaluation study. *Evaluation Review, 9*, 627-643.

Russell, J. (2002). The secret lessons. *New Statesman*, 8 April, pp. 10-13.

Saito, H. (1994). Teachers' practices and students' preferences for feedback on second language writing: A case study of adult ESL learners. *TESL Canada Journal, 11*, 46-70.

Schmidt, R. (2001). Attention. In Robinson, P. (Ed.), *Cognition and second language instruction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Schroeder, T. S. (1973). The effects of positive and corrective written teacher feedback on selected writing behaviours of fourth-grade children. *Dissertation Abstracts International, 34*, 1935A.

Sheen, Y. (2007). The effect of focused written corrective feedback and language aptitude on ELS learners' acquisition of articles. *TESOL Quarterly, 41*(2), 255-284.

Seth, M. J. (2002). *Education fever: Society, politics, and the pursuit of schooling in South Korea.* Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press.

Seth, M. J. (2005). Korean education: A philosophical and historical perspective. *The Sigur Centre Asia Papers, 24*, 3-16.

Shin, H. (2007). English language teaching in Korea: Toward globalization or globalization. In Spolsky, B., & Hult, F. (Eds.), *The handbook of educational linguistics* (pp. 75-86). Oxford: Wiley-Blackwell.

Shin, S. J. (2005). *Developing in two languages: Korean children in America*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Smith, A. D. (2001) 'Perception and Belief'. *Philosophy and Phenomenological Research, 62*(2), 283–309.

Spada, N., & Lightbown, P. M. (2008). Form-focused instruction: Isolated or integrated? *TESOL Quarterly, 42*(2), 181-207.

Storch, N., & Wigglesworth, G. (2010) Students' engagement with feedback on writing: The role of learner agency. In Batstone, R. (Ed.), *Sociocognitive perspectives on language use and language learning* (pp. 166-185). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Tardy, C. (2006). Appropriation, ownership and agency: Negotiating teacher feedback in academic settings. In Hyland, K., & Hyland, F. (Eds.), *Feedback in second language writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Tashakkori, A., & Creswell, J. (2007). The new era of mixed methods. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research, 1*(1), 3-8.

Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (1998). *Mixed methodology: Combining qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (2003). Major issues and controversies in the use of mixed methods in the social and behavioral sciences. In Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (Eds.), *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research*. (pp. 3-50). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Thurmond, V. (2001). The point of triangulation. *Journal of Nursing Scholarship, 33*(3), 254-256.

Truscott, J. (1996). The case against grammar correction in L2 writing classes. *Language Learning, 46*, 327-369.

Truscott, J. (1999). The case for 'the case for grammar correction in L2 writing classes': A response to Ferris. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 8*, 111-122.

Van Beuningen, C. G., De Jong, N. H., & Kuiken, F. (2012). Evidence on the effectiveness of comprehensive error correction in second language writing. *Language Learning, 62*, 1-41.

Van Patten, B. (1990). Attending to form and content in the input. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 12*, 287-301.

Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes* (Ed. by M. Cole, V. John-Steiner, S. Scribner, & E. Souberman). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Villamil, O., & de Guerrero, M. (2006). Sociocultural theory: A framework for understanding socio-cognitive dimensions of peer feedback. In Hyland, K., & Hyland, F. (Eds.), *Feedback in second language writing: Contexts and issues* (pp. 23–41). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Walsh, S. (2002). Construction or obstruction: Teacher talk and learner involvement in the EFL classroom. *Language Teaching Research, 6*(1), 3-23.

Wiggins, G. P. (1993). *Assessing student performance*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Wood, D., Bruner, J. S., & Ross, G. (1976). Role of tutoring in problem-solving. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry and Allied Disciplines, 17,* 89-100.

Yim S-Y., & Yu, Y-L. (2011). Validating the English learning anxiety scale for primary school students in Korea. *English Teaching*, *66* (2), 101-121.

Zamel, V. (1985). Responding to student writing, *TESOL Quarterly 19(*1),79-101.

Appendix 1: Student and parent consent form in English

University of BRISTOL

The Graduate School of Education
35 Berkeley Square, Bristol, BS8 1JA, UK

Title
Teachers' Written Corrective Feedback Approaches in Korean Secondary Level EFL Context: Students' vs. Teachers' Perceptions

The researcher
My name is Young Kim, and I am a doctoral student in the Graduate School of Education at the University of Bristol, UK. I am currently conducting my research on teachers' written corrective feedback in EFL writing and would like to invite you to be a participant in the study.

About this research
This study is being conducted in fulfillment of the requirements of my Doctoral degree in TESOL & Applied Linguistics in University of Bristol, Bristol, UK. I would like to ask you to share your candid opinions and preference towards your English teachers' corrective feedback given in your English essay papers.

What you need to do
1. Provide basic information about yourself (e.g. age, gender) and your experience related to English study (e.g. the total time of your English writing experience)
2. Answer the questionnaire related to your experience of teachers' written corrective feedback in your English writing classes.

Data protection
1. For the anonymity and confidentiality of the data, I will use a pseudonym for you when presenting your information. However, your personal information will appear in the text for the purposes of data analysis and presentation. No other information that identifies you will be made publicly available.
2. All the recorded data will be stored confidentially by me.
3. The information you provide may be read by other researchers, for instance, my supervisor or examiners. The results of this research might be presented at a conference or published in an academic journal in the future.

Benefits
You will make a valuable contribution to a pioneering study investigating the teachers' written corrective feedback approaches on secondary EFL writing students in South Korea.

Rights
1. You have the right to express any concerns about the data, the data-gathering process, or the purpose for which these data will be used, at any time during the study.
2. You have the right to access the data collected from any session in which you are a participant.
3. Your personal information will be anonymized in all disseminations based on this study and will be treated as strictly confidential.
4. You have the right to withdraw at any time, without having to explain your withdrawal.

I would like to express my sincere thanks for your interest in this study. If you decide to take part, I ask you to please complete this consent form. You will be given a copy of this form to

keep and refer to at any time. Please take time to read through the consent form carefully. I am happy to answer any questions you might have.

Please answer the questions by ticking the box:

1. Do you consent to take part in this study?	☐ Yes	☐ No
2. Do you consent to the processing of personal information for the purposes of this study? And do you understand that such information will be anonymized in all disseminations based on this study and that it will be treated as strictly confidential?	☐ Yes	☐ No
3. Have you received sufficient information about the study and the intended use of the information collected?	☐ Yes	☐ No
4. Do you know that you can access the data collected from any session in which you are a participant?	☐ Yes	☐ No
5. Do you know that you are allowed to express any concerns about the data, the data-gathering process, or the purpose to which these data will be used at any time?	☐ Yes	☐ No
6. Do you understand that you are free to withdraw at any time, without having to explain your withdrawal?	☐ Yes	☐ No
7. Do you understand that you will not be disadvantaged in any way regardless of whether you take part in the study or not?	☐ Yes	☐ No

Please fill in:

Parent Consent
Name: ……...
Signature: ……... Date: ……

Child Consent
Name: ……...
Signature: ……... Date: ……

For the researcher to sign:
I confirm that I have carefully explained the nature and demands of this study to this informant.
Signature: ……... Date: ……

Contact details
If you need further information or have any questions or complaints about the study, please feel free to contact me.

Researcher: **Young Kim**
Tel: [redacted]
Email: edxyk@bristol.ac.uk

Appendix 2: Student and parent consent form in Korean

The Graduate School of Education
35 Berkeley Square, Bristol, BS8 1JA, UK

강사의 피드백 (Teachers' written corrective feedback)에 대한 학생들 의견 및 선호도 관련 설문조사

안녕하십니까? 저는 현재 영국 University of Bristol TESOL & 응용 언어학 박사 논문을 쓰고 있는 김영입니다. 한국 중학교 학생들의 영어 쓰기 수업에서 주어지는 강사들의 'Writing Feedback'에 대한 학생들의 태도 및 선호도를 조사하고자, 이 설문지를 만들게 되었습니다. 제 연구의 목적은 한국처럼 영어가 외국어로 사용되는(EFL) 영어 쓰기 교실 상황에서 강사들의 피드백 방법에 대한 학생들 및 강사들의 태도와 의견을 조사하고 그 결과를 분석하여 앞으로 영어 쓰기 지도에 반영하고자 함입니다.

이 설문지의 용도는 본 연구에 필요한 자료 수집 중 한 부분으로서, SK Education 교육 과정 중 에세이쓰기를 실제 하고 있는 학생들을 대상으로, 강사들로부터 받은 피드백에 대한 의견을 들은 후 내용을 분석하는데 사용되어 질것입니다. 학생 여러분들께서는 지금 수강하고 계신 과정뿐 만 아니라, 지금까지 다양한 영어 쓰기 학습 경험을 바탕으로 솔직하고 편하게 설문지를 작성해 주시면 됩니다. 총 2페이지로, 소요시간은 대략 5분에서 10분 정도입니다.

수집된 연구 자료는 저의 박사 논문을 위해 이용될 것이며, 모든 수집된 데이터는 익명으로 표시되고, 수집된 정보는 외부에 노출이 않으니 안심하시어도 됩니다. 원하시는 경우, 연구의 참여를 중도에 철회하실 수도 있습니다.

가능하시면, 설문지에 꼭 메일 주소를 입력하여 주시기 바랍니다. 다시 한번 더 연구에 참여해 주셔서 감사합니다. 문의사항이 있으시면 아래의 E-mail 또는 전화로 연락주시기 바랍니다.

연구자: 김영
Tel: [redacted]
Email: edxyk@bristol.ac.uk

Appendix 3: Student questionnaire

1. How long have you practised English writing?

   never less than 6 months 1 year 2 years over 3 years

   1 2 3 4 5

2. How would you rate yourself as an English student regarding general (R/L/S/W) skills?

   Advanced Intermediate High Intermediate Low Beginner High Beginner Low

   1 2 3 4 5

3. How would you rate your skills in writing (wiring skills only)?

   Advanced Intermediate High Intermediate Low Beginner High Beginner Low

   1 2 3 4 5

4. Do you get teachers error corrections when you submit your writing draft (homework)?

   never not very often sometimes usually always

   1 2 3 4 5

5. Do you read teacher's feedback on your writing carefully and then use it effectively in a new draft?

   never not very often sometimes usually always

   1 2 3 4 5

6. Describe what you do after you read your teacher's comments and corrections.

   - _____ Ask teacher for help
   - _____ Make corrections myself
   - _____ Ask classmates for help
   - _____ Check for a grammar book/dictionary
   - _____ Take a memo about the mistakes
   - _____ Nothing
   - Others:_____
     __

7. Do you think you need the teacher's feedback?

   Not at all not really a little bit usually yes, strongly

   1 2 3 4 5

8. Which area of the comments and corrections do you pay attention to? (어느 부분에 대한 피드백을 가장 원하는가?)

Ideas/content organization sentence structure grammar vocabulary

1 2 3 4 5

9. Which type of teacher feedback do you prefer to have? (피드백 시 얼마나 상세히 고쳐주길 가장 원하는가?)

- _____Circle my errors, but don't correct them for me.

  잘못된 부분 표시만 원함

- _____Circle my errors and tell me what type of error it is (verb tense, word choice, etc.)

  잘못된 부분을 표시하고 실수에 대한 설명 원함

- _____Only correct the most serious errors

  중요한 실수에 대해서만 부분적으로 고쳐주고 원함

- _____Correct all the errors found in the drafts

  잘못된 부분을 모두 고쳐주게 원함

- _____Don't correct my errors. 피드백 원하지 않음

- Others: (기타)
  _____

10. Do you agree that the teacher's corrections and comments help you improve your English writing skills? Yes or No?

- No _____ (If NO, please go to question 11)
- Yes _____(If YES, please tick one of the following below and go to question 12)

Not at all not really sometimes 'yes' usually 'yes' very much

1 2 3 4 5

11. If you do not feel that your teacher's comments and feedback help you to improve your English writing skills, what is the reason?

- _____ I can't read teacher's handwriting
- _____ I sometimes disagree with teacher's comments
- _____ I don't understand grammar terms and symbols, or comments
- _____ comments are too general
- _____ comments are too negative and discouraging

- Others: _____-_____

12. IF you feel that your teacher's comments and feedback help you to improve your English writing skills, what is the reason?

- _____ I understand what to avoid/improve next time
- _____ I know where my mistakes are
- _____ Some positive comments build my confidence
- _____ I can see my progress thanks to the comments
- _____ I respect my teacher's comments/opinion
- _____ The comments challenge me to try new things
- Other:_____

13. Where have you studied English writing?

_____

14. What are your weaknesses and strengths in English writing?

Appendix 4: Writing rubrics of the school

Essay Writing Rubrics

Score	Content	Organization	Use of Language	Sentence Structure	Grammar
1	No plausible position is taken on the topic; severely lacking in examples, reasons and/or evidence	Disorganized; little or no focus; incoherent	Contains fundamental vocabulary mistakes	Severely flawed sentence structure	Grammar and word usage are so poor that they interfere with meaning; very poor mechanics
2	Position on topic is unclear or extremely limited; inappropriate examples or reasons; insufficient evidence	Poorly organized; lacks focus; problems with coherence or flow of ideas	Poor use of language; indicates very limited vocabulary and poor word choice	Frequent problems with sentence structure	Grammar and word usage mistakes are frequent and interfere with meaning; poor mechanics
3	Position on topic demonstrates critical thinking skill applied inconsistently; inadequate examples, reasons or evidence	Limited in organization and focus; demonstrates lapses in coherence or flow of ideas	Displays developing use of language; contains indications of weak vocabulary and poor word selection	Some problems with sentence structure; lacks a variety of sentence structures	Contains many mistakes in grammar word usage and mechanics
4	Position on topic demonstrates competent critical thinking skill; example, reasons and evidence are adequate	Generally organized and focused; demonstrates some coherence and attention to the flow of ideas	Displays adequate, but inconsistent, use of language; vocabulary used is generally appropriate	Good sentence structure; demonstrates some variety of sentence structure	Contains some mistakes in grammar, word usage and mechanics
5	Position is effectively developed through strong critical thinking skill; examples, reasons and evidence are generally appropriate	Well organized and focused; demonstrates coherence and ideas flow well	Displays competent use of language; uses appropriate vocabulary	Good sentence structure; demonstrates variety in sentence structure	Generally free of mistakes in grammar, word usage and mechanics
6	Position effectively and insightfully developed through outstanding critical thinking skill; examples, reasons and evidence are clearly appropriate	Well organized and clearly focused; clearly coherent and ideas flow seamlessly	Displays skillful use of language; vocabulary is accurate and varied; words are appropriately and skillfully chosen	Good sentence structure; demonstrates meaningful and skilled variety of sentence structure	Free of most mistakes in grammar, word usage and mechanics
Mark					

Appendix 5: Teacher profiles

Teacher (age)	Gender	Years of teaching	Years of teaching writing	EFL educational background	Teaching context
T1 (42)	F	9	7	- TEFL Diploma - MA in Applied Linguistics from an Australian university - Certified teacher in Korean language teaching	- Private language schools: primary & secondary school students in Korea - University-level English programme in Korea
T2 (32)	F	2	2	- Studied at international high school in China and university in the US	- Private language schools: primary & secondary school students in China, the US and Korea
T3 (52)	F	8	3	- Went to high school and university in the US & attained TESOL certificate	- Private language schools: primary & secondary school students in Korea and the US
T4 (29)	M	4	3	- TESOL course/studied at a University in Australia - Studied at a Foreign Language High School in Korea	- Private language schools: primary & secondary students in Korea - Tutoring (Korean-born) Australian high school students in Australia
T5 (31)	M	2	1	- Completion of formal writing courses in the previous work setting - English major at university	- Private language schools: primary & secondary school students in Korea
T6 (36)	M	5	5	- Studied at a university in the US	- Private language schools: primary & secondary school students in Korea
T7 (44)	F	18	10	- Study abroad programme/certified English teacher in Korea - MA in English language education	- Private language schools: primary & secondary school students in Korea and Japan
T8 (32)	F	5	4	- Studied at a university in France - Studied at a foreign language high school in Korea	- Private language schools: primary & secondary school students in Korea and Japan

Appendix 6: Teacher interview consent form

The Graduate School of Education
35 Berkeley Square, Bristol, BS8 1JA, UK

Dear teachers

INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH ON TEACHERS' WRITTEN CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK APPROACHES IN KOREAN SECONDARY LEVEL EFL STUDENTS: STUDENTS' VS. TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS.

The purpose of this letter is to request your participation in an educational research: Teachers' Written Corrective Feedback Approaches in Korean Secondary Level EFL Context: Students' vs. Teachers' Perceptions. This study is being conducted in fulfillment of the requirements of my Doctoral degree in TESOL & Applied Linguistics at the University of Bristol, UK.

It is my anticipation that research may not only help me to accomplish my academic pursuit, but it can be also useful to both the institution and other educational organizations by contributing to knowledge and shading light on how EFL teachers believe in and practice written corrective feedback in Korean EFL writing context.

Before your participation, you will have an opportunity to give your consent (by signing a consent form provided) and to get clarification on your rights as a participant. The rights include assurance of confidentiality and withdrawal from participation any time you decide to. I look forward to your valuable support.

Thank you in advance.

Kindest,

Young Kim

Researcher
Tel: [redacted]
Email: edxyk@bristol.ac.uk

The Graduate School of Education
35 Berkeley Square, Bristol, BS8 1JA, UK

Research Title: Teachers' Written Corrective Feedback Approaches in Korean Secondary Level EFL Context: Students' vs. Teachers' Perceptions.

Research Aims: The purpose of this study is to shed light on Korean EFL teachers' written corrective feedback approaches investigating Korean secondary school students' and teachers' perceptions in EFL writing classroom:

1. To examine teachers' beliefs about the approaches of written corrective feedback provided by Korean EFL teachers
2. To investigate students' attitudes towards the written feedback in relation to their learning
3. To understand teachers' concerns when providing the written corrective feedback to the students' written work
4. To make suggestions for developing effective feedback practice in the future education based on the findings of the research.

Researcher: Young Kim, Graduate School of Education, University of Bristol, Bristol, UK

Research Supervisor: Dr Helen Woodfield, Graduate School of Education, University of Bristol, Bristol, UK

Participant Consent Confirmation

I, the undersigned, do hereby certify that; I have been informed of and I have understood the purpose of the said research; I give my consent to be interviewed/ to participate in the discussion related to the research, and have my interview accounts and responses recorded under the agreement that anonymity will be used on the transcripts and all the information I give will be treated with confidentiality. I understand that I have the right to withdraw from participation any time I wish to do so, and I have the right to refuse answering any of the questions in the interview/discussion.

Name of Participant_____
Signature_____
Date_____

Appendix 7: Semi-structured teacher interview

Teachers' written corrective feedback in response to errors in students' writing papers

I. Personal teaching/training experience

1. Total Years Teaching ESL/EFL

2. Teaching experience: total time of teaching English writing

3. Teacher preparation/ training experience

4. Teaching Context

5. Student Groups & Class sizes

II. Beliefs about teachers' written corrective feedback in Korean EFL context

1. What are your general thoughts about providing corrective feedback in student writing papers in Korean EFL private language school classrooms?

2. Do you correct the errors made by students in their writing? What do you think your students struggle with in English writing?

3. Do you think it helps students to improve their writing ability?

4. Do you ask them to revise the draft based on your corrective feedback?

5. What's the percentage of collecting the second drafts from students after the feedback?

6. How do you respond to the students who don't seem to think about your feedback and ignore the feedback?

7. Do you have any suggestions and ideas regarding encouraging students to submit their revision drafts?

III. Practice of corrective feedback approaches

8. What are the common EFL errors do you often find in Korean EFL students' writing?

9. Do you think different students may make distinct types of errors?

10. Then, how much feedback do you think is appropriate?

11. What types of errors in students' writings do you usually focus on? (e.g. sentence structure, word choice, grammar comments, verb tense, organization, ideas, etc.)

12. Why do you focus on the above areas (Number 10)?

13. How explicitly do you correct the errors? (direct correction, underlining the errors only, underlining with error coding) and why?

IV. Suggestions concerning the current practice of corrective feedback in Korean EFL Context

14. Do you have any particular strategies when you mark the students' papers? Effective? If so, why?

15. Do you feel any difficulties or limitations when you do the error correction treatment? What are they? (Please be specific!) What factors influence your error corrections most? Anything that pressurises you or any difficulties when you do the error correction?

16. Do you have any suggestions and concerns regarding approaches to teachers' corrective feedback practice in Korean EFL settings?

17. Are you interested in taking any EFL teacher training course in the future if offered?

18. Other comment:

Appendix 8: Student essay task samples

Writing (Middle School)

Task (1): It's a Mystery

Read a mystery story starts with the following and write a paragraph of your own.

> *Mark stood silently, looking at the door. With a slow creaking sound, it opened. Taking a deep breath, Mark walked inside…*

Now, your task is to continue the beginning of the mystery story by describing what it was like through the door.

Title: _____

- Main Characters:
- Setting:
  1. Time -
  2. Place –

Task (2): Expository Essay

1. Read the information in the box below.

> In the book *The Wizard of Oz*, Dorothy says, "There is no place like home."

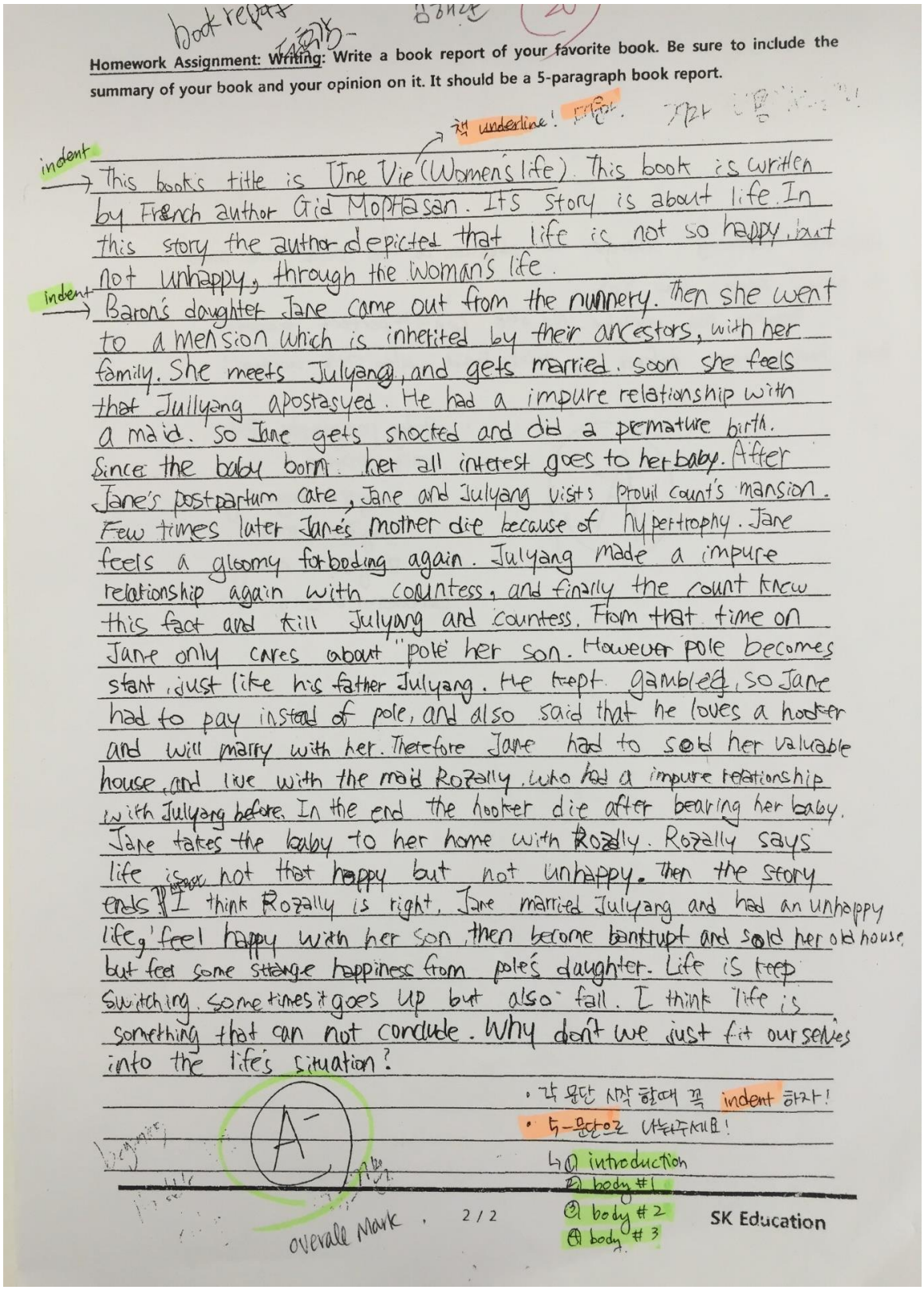
2. Think about a place that is special to you.
3. Write about your favourite place to spend time. Describe the place and explain what makes it special.
4. Brainstorm ideas, details, or information to support your response to the prompt.

Task (3): Read and Write

In this part of test, you will be given a short essay. After reading the essay, complete the sentence given below using your own thoughts, analysis, and ideas. Each of your answers is not to exceed 50 words. Use the appropriate section of the answer sheet for your composition.

> Being a teenager is a difficult time in a young person's life. One reason is that they have to deal with peer pressure. People—especially young ones—often feel a strong desire to fit in. So they may think they have to act like everyone else even if people are doing an activity they dislike. For example, a teenager may attend a party where some are drinking. Even though he knows he should not drink alcohol, he will still do it because he wants his friends to think he is "cool." He gives in to peer pressure to be accepted by his friends. Not everyone behaves this way though. Some teens refuse to give in to peer pressure. Instead, they do what they feel is right. In the above scenario, a different teen might endure the ridicule of his friends by refusing to drink. While he may be uncomfortable, he still does what he believes is right.

Appendix 9: Written corrective feedback sample of T2



book report

Homework Assignment: Writing: Write a book report of your favorite book. Be sure to include the summary of your book and your opinion on it. It should be a 5-paragraph book report.

indent

This book's title is Une Vie (Women's life). This book is written by French author Gid Mopfasan. Its story is about life. In this story the author depicted that life is not so happy, but not unhappy, through the woman's life.

indent

Baron's daughter Jane came out from the nunnery. Then she went to a mension which is inherited by their ancestors, with her family. She meets Julyang, and gets married. Soon she feels that Jullyang apostasyed. He had a impure relationship with a maid. So Jane gets shocted and did a premature birth. Since the baby born, her all interest goes to her baby. After Jane's postpartum care, Jane and Julyang visits Proull count's mansion. Few times later Jane's mother die because of hypertrophy. Jane feels a gloomy forboding again. Julyang made a impure relationship again with countess, and finally the count knew this fact and kill Julyang and countess. From that time on Jane only cares about "pole" her son. However pole becomes stant, just like his father Julyang. He kept gambleg, so Jane had to pay instead of pole, and also said that he loves a hooker and will marry with her. Therefore Jane had to sold her valuable house, and live with the maid Rozally, who had a impure relationship with Julyang before. In the end the hooker die after bearing her baby. Jane takes the baby to her home with Rozally. Rozally says life is not that happy but not unhappy. Then the story ends. I think Rozally is right, Jane married Julyang and had an unhappy life, feel happy with her son, then become banktupt and sold her old house, but feel some strange happiness from pole's daughter. Life is keep switching. Sometimes it goes up but also fall. I think life is something that can not conclude. Why don't we just fit ourselves into the life's situation?

A-

overale Mark . 2/2

SK Education

194

(18) 하은낙

Homework Assignment: Writing: Write a book report of your favorite book. Be sure to include the summary of your book and your opinion on it. It should be a 5-paragraph book report.

indent draft

→ I enjoy reading book. So it was hard to choose the title of book 책 이름 one of the book I'd read is The Great Gatsby. The story of The great Gatsby is start with party that host by Gatsby 주인공 소개하기! Gatsby no stop extravagant to find his lost love at last he find his love Daisy But Daisy hit over someone that has husband Gatsby instead of her to get an affair so her husband killed Gatsby. His so touching story when I already finish to read this book I learn money isn't all of my life

D

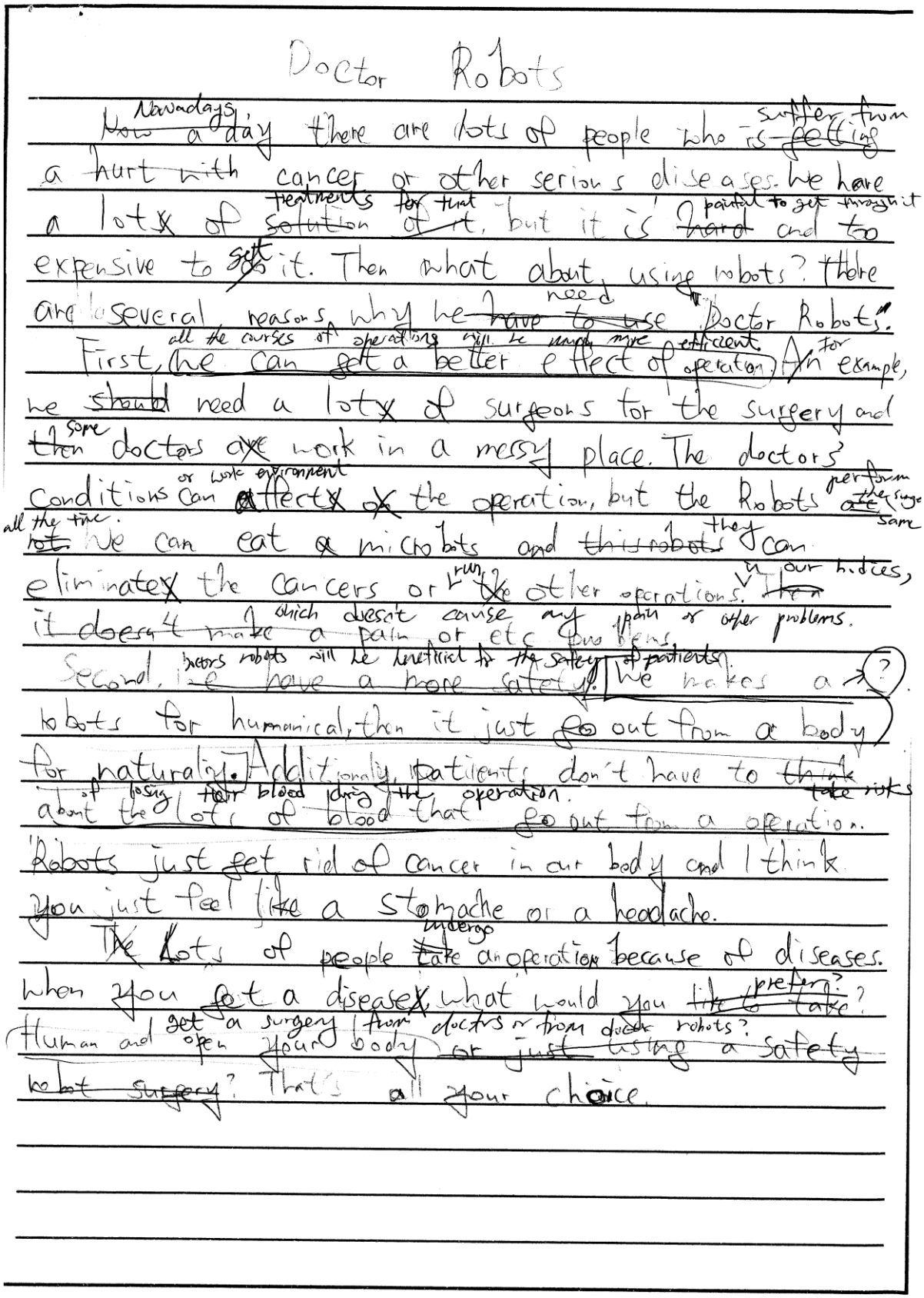
overall Mark.

- 자유개념 보자.
- 일기 너무 힘들다! ㅠㅠ typing 하라니깐.
- 뚝 천달 잘 안되요! Sentence level Errors
- 5-paragraph essay로 써주세요!
  - 문단 ① introduction
  - ② body ₱1 : beginning
  - ③ body ₱2 : middle
  - ④ body ₱3 : ending
  - ⑤ conclusion

  줄거리 자세히
- 문단 시작에 indent 하기!

2 / 2 SK Education

Appendix 10: Written corrective feedback sample of T8



Doctor Robots

Nowadays, there are lots of people who suffer from a hurt with cancer or other serious diseases. We have a lot of treatments for that, but it is painful to get through it and too expensive to get rid of it. Then what about using robots? There are several reasons why we need to use Doctor Robots.

First, we can get a better effect of operation. All the courses of operations will be simply more efficient. For example, we need a lot of surgeons for the surgery and some doctors work in a messy place. The doctors' conditions or work environment can affect the operation, but the Robots perform the same all the time. We can eat microbots and they can run our bodies, eliminate the cancers or other operations. Then it doesn't make a pain or etc problems which doesn't cause any

Second, doctors robots will be beneficial to the safety of patients. We have a more safety? We makes a robots for humanical, then it just go out from a body for natural. Additionally, patients don't have to take risks about the lot of blood that go out from a operation losing their blood during the operation. Robots just get rid of cancer in our body and I think you just feel like a stomache or a headache.

The lots of people undergo an operation because of diseases. When you get a disease, what would you prefer? Human and get a surgery from doctors or from robots? open your body or just using a safety robot surgery? That's all your choice.

I want to make a writable TV. We already have a TV, which is writable but it is the through computer system. I want to write on TV, like make a TV that I can write on like a Chalkboard. I want to write with chalk on TV. It will be very good for a lot of teachers, as well. It has more space for writing.

But, it can be confuse for turning to Chalk board and computer, and students will treat write on TV program.

A few years later, I will invent special TV. Programs will be created will be available on And I will have many write-on-TV programs. Many years later, I will make up a lot of schools and academies, waitresses. And write-on-TVs will have an electronic eraser. It will be the best program in the world. I don't want to make it. But another person will write write-on-TV programs.

Not logical.

You said, You want to invent it!

What are the advantages of your invention?